HIGHER EDUCATION OF BOYS IN ENGLAND

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THE HIGHER EDUCATION OF BOYS IN ENGLAND

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TO

PROFESSOR MICHAEL E. SADLER,

WHO, BY SCIENTIFIC STUDY OF EDUCATION

AT HOME AND ABROAD,

HAS, MORE THAN ANY ONE,

FURTHERED THE CAUSE OF ENGLISH HIGHER SCHOOLS

AND MOST UNTIRINGLY AND UNSELFISHLY

VOICED THEIR NEEDS,

THIS BOOK IS, BY PERMISSION, DEDICATED

BY THE AUTHORS,

IN ACKNOWLEDGMENT OF THE SERVICE

HE HAS RENDERED THEIR PROFESSION.

PREFACE

"IT generally argues some degree of natural impotence of mind, or some want of knowledge of the world, to hazard Plans of Government, except from a seat of Authority." Burke, in the exordium to his speech on Conciliation with America, makes this admission and yet proceeds to prefer a higher duty to decorum, on the ground that "to restore order and repose to an Empire so great, and so distracted as ours, is, merely in the attempt, an undertaking that would ennoble the flights of the highest genius, and obtain pardon for the efforts of the meanest understanding."

No better apology can be made for the appearance of the present volume. We, too, are venturing to hazard Schemes of Reform without any Authority beyond that which experience, whether of success or failure, inevitably bestows. And we, in turn, since no better qualified members of a nervous and self-critical profession seem willing to risk their skins or reputation, are sacrificing modesty, and that dignified reserve which is so impressive, in the interests of what we have come to believe to be a very real and urgent public duty. Perhaps, moreover, we shall, with Burke, be held excused for error in our attempt to bring order into the chaos of an Empire, not indeed of countries, but of schools, since this Empire still, as in the days of Matthew Arnold, is condemned to such sterility and distraction through contempt for scientific and expert government, that even an ineffectual effort towards its reconstitution has become less unpardonable than the silence of timidity and the lethargy of selfishness.

What the reforms we advocate are, and why we advocate them, will, we trust, be sufficiently clear to any one who reads

the following pages with attention. If it is urged that the book is ten years late, and that the Education Acts of 1899 and 1902 have already effected all needful improvement, we answer that, however great and encouraging the recent advance may be, there are still many problems which demand solution, still many scandals which cry aloud for suppression, still an imminent danger of wrecking the whole enterprise through a local administration that looks rather to saving the rates than saving the children; that is rather partisan than impartial, more bureaucratic than scientific, and a private control which is often equally devoid of enlightened self-interest and of every element of public spirit.

The plan of the book which we herewith offer to the consideration of all interested in Education, is not haphazard. It claims, indeed, if not necessity, yet urgency in the various subjects it embraces: it tries to state, within the compass of a single volume, both facts about Higher Education in this country and elsewhere, and the lessons which these facts would seem to indicate. And if it recognises the defects of our national instruction, and the chaos of what is sometimes spoken of pathetically as our national system, it aims particularly at emphasising that contribution to Education in the fuller and deeper sense of the term, which is peculiar to our country and of sufficient importance to compensate for much—the training of boys outside the class-room in the manlier virtues and to a keen, if narrow, patriotism. When once we have broken down *caste*, at least in our schools, the way will be freer for the inculcation of a wider citizenship and a higher duty, and the subordination of self to the community will perhaps, as in the Greek City-state, become the rule and not the rare exception.

To every detail of the suggestions made by our outside contributors we must not be considered to assent: but their main contentions will, we think, show a singular unanimity both with each other's and with our own work, when it is remembered that all wrote without collaboration or previous consultation. After all, Truth is one, for all who catch a gleam of it!

Finally, we have spoken out our minds with what candour and vigour we possess, or we should not have undertaken

this task at all. There has been too much timidity, and too much error on the side of safety. A half reform, advanced with self-excusatory apologies, is almost useless. We must try to think in long sequences, and then publish our conclusions abroad, even in matters of Education. If we are wrong, we shall hear of it: if we are right, some few may profit by it. One concession, however, we ask of the reader—the belief that we have tilted only at abuses of systems, and never at the frailties or shortcomings of individuals; from doing this, every other reason apart, we are prevented by too poignant a sense of our own.

For everything that is not signed we are jointly responsible: in some few cases, to make for uniformity, one of us has initialled an article, but wherever possible we have preferred the double weight that comes from collaboration and a common signature. The scribe varies, but he has only written what we both think after detailed discussion. Our contributors, of course, will each bear up under the burden of unshared responsibility for his own production.

There are many people we wish to thank, and first and foremost our contributors, who out of their scanty leisure spared no little time to help us, and by their promptness—and patience—have made our editorial work easier than we expected. Next—though we run counter to his formal veto in so doing—we cannot but acknowledge a special debt of gratitude to Mr. J. L. Paton, for not only reading through a portion of our proofs, but for giving us throughout the benefit of his judgment and experience. To Mr. A. E. Twentyman, Librarian to the Board of Education, we owe more than we can easily express, for having with unfailing courtesy put, during more than six months, his amazing knowledge of Education at home and abroad at our disposal; it is safe to say that without his aid this book would have been infinitely harder to write and much less valuable to read. To our friends Mr. H. Lionel Rogers, of Radley College, and Mr. H. G. Ford, of Bristol Grammar School, we offer hearty thanks for having read our book, the one in manuscript, the other in proof, and assisted us with countless useful suggestions. To Mr. R. B. Lattimer, Mr. Murray's Educational Adviser, we are under obligations too numerous to

mention: we can only say that he has throughout treated the book much less in the dry light of a business enterprise than in that spirit of keen personal interest in Education which is well known to old readers of *School*. Penultimately, that one of us who spent a happy retreat in the Board of Education Library wishes to thank very sincerely all Mr. Twentyman's staff, and particularly Mr. Bray, the Chief Library Attendant, for much ungrudging help. And last of all, we both of us want to thank each other.

C. N.
A. H. H.

BRISTOL,
St. Barnabas' Day, 1909.

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PART I

SECONDARY EDUCATION COMPARED

I. IN ENGLAND

II. IN FRANCE

III. IN GERMANY

IV. IN AMERICA

CHAPTER I

SECONDARY EDUCATION IN ENGLAND: ITS HISTORY AND PRESENT CONDITION

Introduction.—In order to understand the problem of secondary education in this country, it is necessary to have as complete an idea as possible of its present condition and at least a rough idea of its history, so that this present condition may be explained. We shall then be able to estimate the value and adequacy of our supply, in the light of knowledge as to how this supply has grown up, and to offer suggestions, for a future development of our schools, that may at once remedy present evils and have some chance of permanence through being guided by an enlightened and adjusted, but very real, regard for continuity with the past. Next, it is only by reviewing what we have done in England in comparison with what has been done abroad, that we shall appreciate truly our own shortcomings and the shortcomings of other nations, and while clinging, with a heightened sense of value, to those parts of our system which embody our best traditions and make the English contribution to the theory and practice of education something unique in Europe, be forced to admit that other countries have achieved, in certain directions, results at present superior to our own and worthy of our very careful consideration. Few will deny that we have waited so long for a national system of secondary education that we have no excuse for not instituting a system which, as far as we can make it so, shall be the best, for English boys at least. And since we can only judge of what is best when we have made a survey of what England has done, and with what result, and what two leading Continental peoples have done in attacking the same problem, and what has been the result of *their* solution, we intend to devote this first part of our work to reviewing the higher schools of England, France, Germany, and America. With regard to England, we shall

confine ourselves for the moment to a historical survey and statement of our position to-day; in dealing with France, Germany, and America we shall perhaps combine the survey with some degree of criticism.

English Secondary Schools in the Tudor Period.—Until twelve years ago (1896) our whole idea of English education in the past rested upon a blunder. With some exceptions, notably Winchester and Eton, we have been accustomed to attribute the establishment of schools, especially of schools for the middle and poorer classes, to the liberality of the Tudor kings, who, as we thought, out of the spoils of the monasteries founded and endowed the majority of the Grammar Schools of this country. Before this act of grace we imagined that the bulk of the people were entirely ignorant, except in so far as they received their instruction in monasteries, in a few cathedral schools, or, if noble, as pages in the feudal or royal court. With the accession of the Tudors, whose reigns synchronised with the Revival of Learning, abundant provision was, we were told, increasingly made for the education of the people by the endowment of free schools for the poor. In brief, darkness became light, and liberal learning bade fair to become general, until the troublous Stuart times brought with them stagnation, if not retrogression.

But the entire perspective has been changed by Mr. Leach's book on *English Schools at the Reformation (1546–8)*,[1] and we now see that Henry VIII. and Edward VI. were rather the spoilers than the founders of schools. Mr. Leach has collected records which show that nearly 200 Grammar Schools existed in England before the reign of Edward VI., and he surmises that, since these records are defective, there were at least 300 such schools in 1535. He writes (p. 6):

"The Grammar Schools which existed were not mere monkish Schools, or Choristers' Schools, or Elementary Schools. Many of them were the same schools which now live and thrive. All were schools of exactly the same type, and performing precisely the same sort of functions, as the Public Schools and Grammar Schools of to-day. There were indeed also Choristers' Schools and Elementary Schools. There were scholarships at schools, and exhibitions thence to the Universities, and the whole paraphernalia of Secondary Education . . . which was conducted on the same lines

[1] Constable, 1896.

and in the main by instruments of the same kind, if not identically the same, as those in use till the present generation."

Mediæval Schools.—Besides these 200 Grammar Schools, doing secondary work and prescribing a complete course of Latin instruction, there are records remaining of eighteen Song Schools attached to churches and giving a musical education, and of twenty-two schools in which the teaching was merely elementary. Of the Grammar Schools, some are connected with cathedrals and collegiate churches or colleges, some with monasteries, some with hospitals, others with guilds, and others, lastly, with chantries. Mr. Leach inclines to the view that the monks confined themselves to teaching personally their own novices, but were under an obligation to act as trustees for any endowed Grammar School attached to the monastery. The Cathedral Schools, at first intended chiefly for novices, were instituted throughout Europe in accordance with the decree of the Council of Trent, and were, until the time of Elizabeth, quite distinct in England from the Choristers' School attached to the cathedral. The same obligation to maintain a Grammar School, at least in populous places, was laid upon the collegiate churches or colleges, corporations of secular clergy which often owed their foundation to the suppression of a priory or monastery. Winchester, founded in 1384, and Eton, founded in 1440, belong to this type of College School, only in their case the Grammar School was made the main, not the subsidiary, object of the college. Of Hospital Schools, there was a famous specimen in that attached to the Hospital of St. John the Baptist at Banbury, the grammar used wherein served as a model to the founder of the Manchester Grammar School in 1515. This school, said to have been founded in the reign of King John, and once ranking with Winchester, has so entirely disappeared that even its site is unknown. With regard to Guild Schools, which were kept by twenty-eight out of thirty-three recorded guilds, the practice of supporting a Grammar School seems to have arisen out of the custom of most guilds to maintain a priest of their own "to pray for the donors of the lands belonging to the said guild . . . as also to keep a school for the erudition of children freely for ever." [1] The origin of Chantry Schools was similar. Pious persons

[1] Cited by Mr. Leach, p. 34, from the report of Henry's Schools Inquiry Commission into the Guild of St. Lawrence, which maintained the school of Ashburton in Devon.

founded chantries and, in addition to providing a priest to pray for them, often caused a school to be maintained out of the chantry trust. Lastly, there is the interesting class of schools independent of any other foundation, such as Sevenoaks Grammar School, founded in 1432, of which the master was to be a layman, just as in 1509, in founding St. Paul's School, Dean Colet stipulated that the High Master should be a layman, "a wedded man or a single man, or a priest that hath no benefice with cure," and as Hugh Oldham, Bishop of Exeter, in founding the Manchester Grammar School laid down that the High Master was to be "a single man, priest or not priest, so that he be no religious man." Such schools were happily enabled by these provisions to keep their endowment intact under the Tudors.[1]

Mr. Leach abundantly proves two other points with regard to these old-world Grammar Schools: (1) that the "poor" children provided for by wealthy founders were not, as a rule, the absolutely poor, the sons of labourers, but the relatively poor, the poor relations of the richer classes, "the younger sons of the nobility and farmers, the lesser landholders, the prosperous tradesmen," although bright boys who were really poor were sometimes educated free for the professions; and that (2) a "free" school meant a school in which no payment was made for tuition fees, not merely a school in which a "liberal" education was given. In some cases, as Winchester and Eton, the scholars were boarded and lodged equally without payment, though, and this till recently, Eton boys

[1] Nor must we forget the extensive provision made by Oxford and Cambridge before the Renaissance for what was really secondary education. The *trivium*, or first part of the bachelor's course, was in fact a boy's school training, comprising as it did dialectic, or the art of disputation, rhetoric, the art of declamation, and grammar, which was made the subject of dialectical discussion. Whether a boy learnt the *trivium* outside the University, or in a Grammar School connected with a college, was immaterial, except that when there was no special foundation, as Winchester or Eton, for this learning, he was more likely to get competent teaching at the Universities. The statutes of Merton, Balliol, University, and Oriel Colleges at Oxford, and Peterhouse at Cambridge, all provide for a *grammaticus* to teach grammar to the younger students, who were often boys of twelve. Such students too were the demies for whom William of Waynflete, the founder of Magdalen College, Oxford, provided thirty scholarships and an informator, and Jesus College, Cambridge, had a Grammar School connected with it. The teachers had to be Masters of Arts, and at Cambridge were specially trained at God's House, or Christ's College, the first Normal School, and given a degree in grammar, conferred down to 1542. It was the difficulty of getting qualified university men to teach the *trivium* rather than the more advanced *quadrivium* that led to the foundation of free Grammar Schools under teachers whom Oxford licensed and inspected. See Mr. Foster Watson, *The English Grammar Schools to 1660*, ch. xiii.

presented the headmaster with a five-pound note on leaving. The great English public schools have grown up through "foreigners" coming to board in the town in order to share in the instruction of the free scholars, who were generally the sons of the inhabitants of certain districts or founders' kin. As to the percentage of the population enjoying secondary teaching in the dark pre-Reformation days, Mr. Leach (p. 99) conjectures that, in 1546, there were 300 Grammar Schools for a population of 2½ millions, or one for every 8,300 people. Mr. Tarver, commenting upon this in his book, *Debateable Claims*, states that "Whitaker's list of Secondary Schools for 1897, taking England and Wales alone, gives about one for every 54,000 of the population." If these figures are roughly correct, England made, 350 years ago, between six and seven times as much provision for liberal learning as she did at the end of the nineteenth century.

What, then, the reader will ask, did Henry VIII. and Edward VI. do for the schools connected with their names, so as to gain the reputation of being their founders? The answer is simple. They allowed a minority of schools to survive by handing back, or selling back, the property of those schools which had become vested in the Crown by sundry acts of confiscation. The same system seems to have gone merrily on under Mary and Elizabeth. For instance, Westminster ascribes its existence to the pious bounty of Queen Elizabeth in 1560, but commemorates Henry VIII. among its benefactors. All that Elizabeth really did was to re-establish as a boarding school the Grammar School which had for centuries been maintained by the monks of Westminster, and was permitted by her father to survive in the form of a College School. Sometimes, instead of giving back its property to a school, the Tudors granted a fixed payment, thus ultimately bringing about its financial ruin through the fall in the value of money. We cannot find a single instance of a school owing its first beginning or real endowment to the personal interest or bounty of a Tudor sovereign, nor, if we may judge from the researches of Mr. Leach published up to the present time, are we likely to find any. Whether the school be Warwick in 1545, or Ripon and York in 1555 and 1557 respectively, it has been proved that Henry VIII. in the one case, and Mary in the others, did nothing more than refound an existing school, or one that had been recently dissolved. James I., however, probably went beyond his immediate predecessors, when he revived the confiscation of school endowments on the ground that there had been evasion of the Chantries Act of Edward VI. We are far indeed

from the old view of the Tudors and early Stuarts compensating for many misdeeds by their generous promotion of learning!

Apart from documentary evidence, there are several reasons that should have prevented thoughtful people from underestimating pre-Tudor education. As Dr. Rashdall points out,[1] the Universities were founded in the twelfth century, and Oxford alone seems to have attracted nearly 3,000 students during the mediæval period. Now, since the University lectures were given in Latin, it follows that Latin must have been already familiar to the hearers, and this, in itself, postulates an abundant supply of secondary schools. And Mr. Tarver[2] is surely right in arguing that there must have been a literate middle class in the reign of Edward III., if we are to account for the widespread popularity of Wycliff's Bible, Langland's *Piers Plowman*, and Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales*. This learning was not confined to England, it was general in Western Europe. An anonymous writer of the early twelfth century, quoted by Dr. Rashdall, declares that "throughout Gaul and Germany, Normandy and England, not only in towns and villages (*castellis*), but even in mere hamlets (*villulis*), there are to be found most expert schoolmasters, as numerous as the curators and officials of the royal revenues." Boys were taught in schools not only to translate, but to compose in Latin. They must have begun young, for before the foundation of Winchester they went up to the Universities at the age of twelve or fourteen, there to dispute in syllogisms. William of Wykeham made the important reform that his boys should stay at school until they were sixteen, before going on to New College.[3]

The Sixteenth Century.—As far, then, as royal advancement of education is concerned, the sixteenth century was a time of rapid retrogression, not of progress, and it is clear that secondary schools have not yet recovered from the barbarous spoliation they then experienced. In other directions there were compensations. Individual founders—bishops, deans, tradesmen—by their benefactions and public spirit did something to replace what had been destroyed, and their deeds of gift almost always reflect a liberal spirit, free from clericalism, desiring only to promote the learning of boys of every rank. For it began to be seen that the Reformation, with its prejudice against Latin and scholarship as savouring of priestcraft, was bidding fair, especially

[1] *Harrow School* (Arnold, 1898), p. 12.
[2] *Debateable Claims* (Constable, 1898), p. 5.
[3] *Harrow School*, p. 17.

in its later stages, to drive culture entirely out of the land. Latimer speaks of the "devilish drowning of youth in ignorance, the utter decay of the Universities." This contempt for letters, as antiquated and superstitious, led to the counter-reformation under Jesuit teachers in Germany, since, when the need for learning came to be felt, no other teaching could be found.[1] In England this attitude is one of the main causes of the political and social cleavage that has characterised our subsequent history. In all, 428 Grammar Schools were continued or started and endowed (by a grocer, as Harrow, in 1571, or a guild, as Merchant Taylors', in 1561) between the accession of Henry VII. and the death of Charles I. The exact numbers are as follows: To the time of Henry VII. are assigned 16 schools, of Henry VIII. 63, of Edward VI. 50, of Mary 19, of Elizabeth 138, of James I. 83, and of Charles I. 59. Many, however, were very slenderly endowed, and soon sank into complete obscurity, and, as we have seen, it is probable that the greater number of the most important merely replaced, through private munificence, educational foundations which royal rapacity had swept away. The form in which the old school revived was often entirely new and the break of continuity complete, but we need not distort our historical perspective by forgetting that there was any old school at all.

The second compensation was the introduction of Greek into the curriculum, a practice which became common in the sixteenth century, the pioneer of the movement being Dean Colet, the founder of St. Paul's. This innovation, rather than any administrative changes in the constitution of schools, is what really marks the Tudor period as characterised by a genuine Revival of Learning.

Public Schools: Wykeham and Colet.—In speaking of our English schools it is impossible, even in a rapid sketch, to omit a fuller mention of those institutions which have served us hitherto as models, and out of which our most typical system of education has evolved. We shall, therefore, say something about William of Wykeham, who, in Winchester, laid down the principles upon which public boarding school life has generally been based; and John Colet, who, in founding St. Paul's, gave us a most adequate and generously conceived prototype of what a public day school should be. Wykeham, a statesman, a man of the world, and a convinced hater of the religious orders, founded Winchester as a school that should prepare students for New College, in the University of Oxford. It originally consisted of a warden and 10 fellows, a head-

[1] Dr. Scherer, cited in *Debateable Claims*, p. 18.

master and an undermaster, 70 poor scholars, 3 chaplains, and 16 choristers. Besides these there might be 10 paying scholars, chosen from among the sons of "noble and influential persons, special friends of the college." A certain number of the scholars proceeded every year to New College with scholarships. The prefect system was established by putting eighteen of the oldest and most advanced boys in a position to exercise control over the others, and to give them instruction. Wykeham developed a corporate life by encouraging games and comradeship ("pro perpetuo tamquam personæ collegiales ac collegiate simul conversentur ac collegialiter stent et vivant"). He recognised that character is as important as instruction, and chose for his motto, "*Manners makyth man.*" When we read his statutes we seem to be in the best period of modern school life, and find it hard to realise that he was a mere mediæval bishop. And the same is true when we turn to Colet, who laid down that his school should be open to boys of all countries and nations without distinction, and should educate them without charge in godliness and good learning. We have mentioned the fact that he, the friend of More and Erasmus, was the first to introduce Greek into our schools, and let his High Master be a married man and a layman. He proved his humanism also by banishing all bad and barbarous Latin, calling it "*blotterature* rather than *lyterature*"; and his humanity by writing in the preface to his grammar, "Wherefor I pray you all lytell babes all lytell chyldren lerne gladly this lytell treatyse and commende yt dylygently unto your memoryes. Trustyng of this begynnyng yt ye shall procede and growe to parfyte lyterature and come at ye last to be great clarkes. And lyft up your lytell whyte handes for me which prayeth for you to God to whom be all honour and imperyale maieste and glory. Amen." He, like Wykeham, was conspicuously a lover of boys and little children. Perhaps that is why Winchester and St. Paul's have always produced "great clarkes" and led the schools of England. For most boys, however, times were in store in which they would gladly have lifted up their little white hands in supplication for another Colet or another Wykeham.

Before going on to survey the general trend of secondary education in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, it may prove useful if we give a brief account of the development of our English public boarding schools. Only if we do so will some institutions, which appear at first sight almost meaningless, find their explanation as historically natural adjustments to environment, and some abuses usefully illus-

trate and emphasise the danger of our English proneness to unfettered individualism.

Schools and Universities.—First, the example of Winchester was widely followed by later schools in the matter of connecting a new foundation with some particular college at the University, in order that poor scholars might have the way made smooth for them, not merely while at school but through the University, to the highest offices in Church and State. Henry VI. founded King's College, Cambridge, for the continuation of the studies of his Eton boys; Westminster sent at least six scholars yearly to Christ Church, Oxford, and Trinity College, Cambridge; Sir Thomas White, a member of the guild which founded Merchant Taylors' School, established St. John's College at Oxford, with forty-three scholarships for boys educated at this school. And, similarly, most of the Grammar Schools in the country were, and still are, closely connected by scholarships and exhibitions with different colleges at the older Universities. These scholarships were established long before the days of competitive examination for open scholarships; and had not the schools become the home of abuse and nepotism, would have maintained an uninterruptedly open career for talent. As it is, they have served for more than 500 years to maintain in England the sound principle of graded and continued study.[1]

Commoners.—Secondly, Winchester has the credit of being a great prototype of the boarding school that should be inclusive of different classes, not branding its scholars with ignominy by educating them alone, but encouraging a due proportion of rich men's sons to share their studies, it would seem as a favour to the rich rather than as a help to the finances of the school. Similarly, Eton received, from the first, twenty sons of noble friends of the college as paying pupils, called originally *Commensales*, and afterwards Oppidans; and Westminster, as reconstituted by Elizabeth, took as many as eighty pensionarii, oppidani, or peregrini. So, too, it is laid down in the statutes of Harrow that "the Schoolmaster may receive over and above the youths of the inhabitants in his parish so many Foreigners, as the whole may be well taught, and applied, and the place can conveniently contain, and of these Foreigners he may take such stipend and wages as he can get." The insertion of this clause proved invaluable, a hundred years later, to the development of Harrow, in its early history poorly endowed, and lucky only in its proximity

[1] Wase gives a list of over thirty Grammar Schools founded by guilds, and connected with different colleges at Oxford and Cambridge.

to London. But already not only Harrow, but the other public schools, had allowed the rich to enter into the possession of the poorer scholars, as well as make all scholars a small minority in the number of boys they educated.

Abuses (1) of School Scholarships and Endowments.—How, it may naturally be asked, did the change come about, and the poor men's sons, for whose benefit these schools were chiefly founded, suffer themselves to be dispossessed of their inheritance, and the sons of the wealthy to enter within their gates? The reasons seem to have been several. We shall notice later the increasing division of classes, produced by the religious conflicts and civil wars of the Tudors and Stuarts, and resulting in the monopoly of endowments by the Church. Since the Church embraced the wealthier classes, there would be less likelihood of poverty characterising the parents of the boys who would seek a free education under Church influence, and the middle-class dissenters of the towns would avoid such institutions as the public schools whatever their financial qualification might be. But there were, undoubtedly, many poorer professional men who really needed help in the education of their children, and to whom the Church monopoly can have been no impediment. Why, then, did they gradually cease to take advantage of free scholarships? The answer is, that through maladministration on the part of the schools the scholarships were really no longer free, that to be a scholar was no longer a possible position for a poor man's boy. The public schools, from the middle of the seventeenth century onwards, became increasingly close preserves of the aristocracy, offering to a minority a "free education" of which the freedom from cost was purely illusory, and to all pupils an education that will not bear close examination, simply because their rulers were often dishonest, and because there was no effective outside control to check abuses before they acquired the prestige of custom. For instance, the property with which Eton was endowed rapidly increased in value, while the stipends of the Fellows, paid in money, correspondingly diminished as time went on. The result was that the statutes were openly broken, and the appreciation in values was diverted to what seemed its proper destiny—the pocket of the Provost and Fellows. Thus we read that in the twenty years before 1862 they divided amongst themselves £127,700, gained by the increased increment as leases of valuable land were renewed. They were far, indeed, from the paltry £10 that Wykeham stipulated should be paid them yearly for their sinecure! Similarly, at Winchester, the Warden, by 1636, incurred a rebuke by Laud, the visitor,

for appropriating college funds, and in 1710 the Sub-warden and Bursar protest that it is notorious that the collegers (scholars) are so badly provided for as to be at the charges of their friends, and that the Warden took from the college income for his own use a greater sum than the amount applied to the maintenance of all the seventy scholars put together. At Eton, Maxwell Lyte tells us that in 1635 the scholars complain that they are robbed of breakfast, clothing, bedding, and the commonest necessities of life, while the college income is divided among a few. The complaint about breakfast, then a less formal meal than now, and not furnished to the scholars of Westminster until 1846, is perhaps unreasonable, since it was unprovided for in the statutes: about the general condition of things there can be no doubt. In self-defence the poor scholars had to pay for extras, out of their friends' pocket, by the end of the eighteenth century, sums amounting to £60 at Winchester, £80 at Eton, and on a similar scale elsewhere. Naturally, poor scholars ceased to come to public schools, and at Eton, in 1840, we find only thirty-five out of seventy scholarships filled up.

(2) **Of University Scholarships.**—Another abuse was the passing on of scholars to the Universities. Just as the sons of the wealthy secured the entrance scholarships into the public schools, so the sons of the influential were elected, after a farcical examination, to the limited number of places vacant at the colleges in connection with these schools. Such elections led in time to fellowships and a life's income. It is no wonder that they became family jobs, and were regarded as family birthrights.

Masters.—But the chief omission on the part of the founders of the English schools was to provide for adequate teaching as the school increased in size. As a rule, the masters were originally only two, a headmaster and a second master, or usher, and, as their number was added to very slowly, this defect not only ruined efficient instruction, but subverted discipline, so that we read of three rebellions at Winchester between 1774 and 1818, and six at Eton between 1768 and 1832. In 1651 we find only three masters at Westminster for 300 boys; a hundred years later Winchester considered herself well staffed with three for 157 pupils; and Dr. Keate, in 1809, found only nine masters provided for 570 boys. Maxwell Lyte writes: "Dr. Keate found himself the sole teacher in a school of about 170 boys, and the number continued to increase. Mr. Edward Coleridge remembers being one of 198 boys in the headmaster's division, and, as he might expect, he was only called up to construe twice in the

course of a half." And although, as we have seen, the masters took pains to secure their own interests, yet the salaries paid them would lead one to suppose that the assistant master's outcry of poverty is not entirely modern. The stipends long remained contemptible, even compared with contemporary incomes, the headmaster of Winchester receiving £10, besides lodging, keep, and cloth for clothing; the second master, £3 6*s.* 8*d.* At Eton the terms were better, the headmaster being given lodging and £16 as salary, with a maintenance allowance of £3 18*s.* and £1 for clothing. Westminster paid its chief £12, with £1 10*s.* for clothing and £6 1*s.* 8*d.* for maintenance. Even if we multiply these sums by twelve in the fifteenth century and by four towards the end of the sixteenth century, in order to arrive at their present value, we are still far from the salaries of from £3,000 to £6,000 which some of our greatest public schools pay their headmasters to-day! Colet was particularly generous in assigning £35 to his High Master, a sum computed to be worth a quarter of the then Lord Chancellor's income.

Tutors.—The result of this inadequacy of teaching provided by the school, combined with the growing aristocratic spirit of the later Stuart and Georgian periods, brought about the system of tutors. We shall see that clergymen were increasingly employed as private tutors in rich families, and since boys often went to school as young as eight, it became customary to send them in the charge of their tutors, who, if the boys were not on the foundation, would act *in loco parentis* to them in their out-of-school life. At Eton, where the fashion started, although the Oppidans grouped themselves in houses in the town kept by "dames," they were often under the individual care of these tutors, who gave them their real instruction, preparing with them the lessons that were heard in class, and probably proving as useful to the clever as they must have been a drawback to the idle. Afterwards, in most schools, the practice arose of putting a number of boys under a single tutor, who became, as time went on, the boarding-house keeper, and had also to be a member of the school staff, acting as foster-parent to one set of boys and teacher to another, and generally leaving private tuition to other less busy hands. But the change was very gradual. At Rugby it was Arnold who first insisted that all boarding-houses should be under the control of masters, and the last dame has only lately disappeared from Eton. At this last most conservative school a boy's compositions are still marked twice, first by his tutor, and then by his form-master, an interesting reminder of the old days when the classical knowledge of an Oppidan's

"governor" might require such testing by the College authorities!

We will refrain from retelling the thrice-told tale of the system of fagging, meant originally to save expense of servants, and found to develop character; of the bullying inevitable in an unorganised herd of boys; of grim excesses of corporal punishment; of the narrowness of the curriculum, which kept to the letter of the Renaissance programme, but often lost its spirit, which consigned writing and arithmetic to the same "visiting" master at Eton, and treated them as extras to be taught on half-holidays only. We shall see that the exclusion of foreign languages, and science, and history, and English led to many wealthy parents choosing home training for their elder sons, school being regarded as merely suitable to prepare the younger for professions. And even after public-school life regained its popularity, we shall find the same exclusion going on until quite recent times. But our immediate task is rather to continue tracing the chequered story of English education.

The Seventeenth and Eighteenth Centuries.—The history of secondary education in England for the 250 years after the Tudor period is sorry reading. Many causes contributed to its decline. The Civil War diverted the attention of the country into political and religious channels, and no one denies that Milton was an exception to the general Puritan attitude towards learning. It is easier to divide and destroy than to unite and create. The social schism which began under Henry VIII. became more pronounced in the following century, and all the efforts of individuals and corporations to keep the nation literate by the provision of free Grammar Schools were largely unavailing. Still, it is certain that during the earlier part of the seventeenth century, at least, the schools remained generally free, and, to some extent, were used by the sons of people of different political colour. America owes her traditional system of free education to the Puritans of Massachusetts, many of whom had been trained in the free Grammar Schools of England. But it was especially during this century that the system of home education grew up among the nobility and gentry. In many cases the home training was of the worst, the boys being left to the care of servants and inferiors: occasionally it was advanced and careful. Locke tells of a friend's child who at the age of nine understood "geography, chronology, and the Copernican system of our Vortex," had seen dogs dissected and could give "some little account of the grand traces of anatomy," and had learnt Latin from his

mother, who began the study in order to teach him. The upper classes, however, were beginning to set a greater value on social accomplishments, such as dancing, than on mental education, and it became the practice that the eldest son should travel with his tutor, after a home training, while his younger brothers, after being taught the elements at home by the French tutor and chaplain (both of whom were considered to be superior domestics), were sent, often at eight, to the grammar or public school, and at sixteen to college. In some cases, however, boys prolonged their stay at school even to the age of twenty, though there was a growing feeling that one could learn there little but useless Latin grammar, and that the purely classical studies needed much subsequent supplementing. Boyle, after leaving Eton, went to Geneva to learn rhetoric, logic, mathematics, and the doctrine of the spheres, and the foreign tour was generally utilised for acquiring dexterity in dancing, fencing, riding, and the use of one stringed instrument. The enforced practice of talking Latin at school was gradually dying out; but prose and verse composition in Latin and Greek seem to have gained in importance, and at Westminster the top boys sent up Hebrew and Arabic themes as well.[1] Evelyn was present at an examination of boys of twelve or thirteen at Westminster in 1661, and writes: "I heard such exercises in Latin, Greek, Hebrew, and Arabic in themes and extraordinary verses, with such readiness and will, as wonderfully astonished in such boys." And Pepys, after going to Eton in 1665, comments in his Diary: "I went to the hall and there found the boys learning verses DE PESTE, it being their custom to make verses on Shrovetide. I read several, and very good they were, better I think than ever I made when I was a boy, and in rolls as long or longer than the whole hall by much." The two fashionable schools during the seventeenth century were Eton and Westminster, each educating about 300 boys. At the beginning of the eighteenth century, the Jacobite sympathies of the headmaster of Eton benefited Harrow, which became the favoured seminary of the Whig nobility. The general impression left by a study of education during this period is that while the clever minority was given by the schools an advanced classical training, the majority gained neither manners nor knowledge. Of the country gentry Burnet writes: "They are the worst instructed and least knowing of any of their rank I ever went amongst."

The Results of the Act of Uniformity.—It was the Act

[1] We are indebted for much of this information to *Social England* (Cassell), pp. 494–6.

of Uniformity in 1662 that, by abandoning the attempt to incorporate Puritanism into the organism of the English Church and by formally discountenancing Dissent, dealt the death-blow to any possibility of maintaining a really national and comprehensive system of education. By this Act all existing educational endowments were handed over to the State Church and became the monopoly of a section (however large a section is immaterial) of the English people. The inevitable result followed. The fact that the masters in the Grammar Schools were bound to be Churchmen kept Nonconformist parents who had means from sending their boys to such pernicious instruction. The fact that Dissenters were increasingly drawn from the poorer strata of the population made wealthy Churchmen inclined to confuse poverty and Dissent, and unwilling to let their sons receive contamination in a free school which poor Dissenters might attend. The endowments, too, were in many cases in money, and as money fell in value they became inadequate to maintain the school without further financial help. In earlier and better days such help would have been readily forthcoming, and the standard of the institution would have been kept up, without impairing its comprehensive utility through the establishment of fees that would exclude the poor. Now, as we have shown, appeal to public opinion was useless, for such opinion was both socially and politically divided when it was not altogether indifferent to education. Hence free schools were often converted into fee schools, thereby effectively shutting out the poor. Where a Grammar School remained free it either sank into obscurity, being attended by a few of the rich, for the sake of its exhibitions at the University, and a certain number of the children of the wealthier townspeople (although numbers were not encouraged by most clerical headmasters, since they brought no increase of income), or, especially if it lay in the neighbourhood of London, it retained a few free places for town boys (which, for obvious reasons, were not much in demand), and developed into a fashionable boarding school for the sons of the wealthy classes—became, in fact, a "public" school. Every subterfuge of dishonesty was employed in order to break the spirit, while keeping the letter, of the statutes under which the schools were founded. If, as at Winchester, masters were forbidden to "exact, ask, or claim" fees from the scholars, then the fee of £10 was, nevertheless, put down in the bill, "if allowed" being written after it. If schools like Harrow or Rugby were founded for the free education of the children of the district, then, as they grew fashionable, this clause was held to mean that parents

might send their sons as scholars, if they qualified by a long (or short) residence in the neighbourhood.[1] If the scholar of a school had to be "poor," then what was meant, of course, was that *he* was poor himself, not that his parents were poor. By this reasoning all boys can be convicted of poverty before they attain their majority. Nothing is simpler or more delightful—or more disingenuous. As we have seen, "poor" children implied, as a rule, for the founders a relative rather than an absolute poverty. They never contemplated the possibility of the word coming to mean nothing at all. But perhaps we have sufficiently exposed the abuses inevitable in all foundations which are exposed neither to the scrutiny of public opinion nor to any efficient check by State control or regulation.

Dissenting and Roman Catholic Schools.—Since the public and grammar schools had become a Church monopoly, and in many cases a monopoly of the rich, where, the reader will ask, did Dissenters and those of the poorer middle classes who found themselves excluded, educate their boys? The answer is, for the most part in private schools or through private tutors. The ministers ejected in 1662 were men, as a rule, of University education, and they seem to have been fully alive to the necessity of providing education for their followers and a living for themselves. Richard Swift, for instance, conducted a school at Mill Hill from 1662 to 1701, and the Society of Friends kept at Penketh a day school which had an intermittent existence from 1692 until 1834, when it gave place to a boarding school similar to the Quaker School at Ackworth. Such schools as were founded for definite sectarian purposes often acquired a semi-public character, and cannot have long remained under private management, although their origin was frequently due to individual enterprise. The most important of the older schools of this type are St. Edmund's, Old Hall, near Ware, started as a private school for Catholics in 1769, and in 1795 receiving the southern half of the students from the English College at Douai, which had been broken up by the Revolution; St. Cuthbert's, Ushaw, near Durham, where the north-country Douai students settled; Stonyhurst, the Jesuit College, founded for English Catholic boys at St. Omer in 1592 and removed to Lancashire in 1794; Kingswood, started by John Wesley for Methodists in 1746; Mill Hill, refounded for Congregationalists in 1807 upon public-school lines; Taunton and Silcoates, also Independent schools.

[1] To-day both schools soothe their conscience by maintaining cheap local day schools for town boys.

Private Schools.—Such a bare list as this shows how greatly the need of public secondary schools was felt by those outside the English Church, both as training grounds for future priests and ministers and as seminaries, for the boys of ministers and middle-class laymen in the case of Dissenting schools, for the sons of the upper classes in the case of Catholic schools. The establishment, however, of such foundations was not only rare, but their size made them quite inadequate for the education of even a small percentage of the several sects. The boys of England who were not too poor to pay a small fee, but who, for different reasons, could not attend the Grammar Schools, were, when not educated at home, sent to small private schools, some of which were started, as we have seen, by cultivated men and maintained a respectable standard, but most of which were before long in the hands of adventurers and charlatans of the worst description.[1] Although the public schools had gross defects in the provision of teaching, and although the Grammar Schools under the deadening influence of a Church monopoly were rapidly losing their efficiency through a narrow curriculum and often incompetent masters, yet we have no hesitation in saying that the worst public or grammar school remained a paradise, both for teachers and taught, compared with many of the private academies. Authoritative and official accounts of such schools are naturally lacking, but we have only to turn to eighteenth-century literature, to the writings of Goldsmith and Smollett, in order to get a picture, probably typical, certainly lurid, of what the worse among these enterprises were. And the sketches by Dickens of Dotheboys Hall and Salem House suggest that things were in much the same

[1] We must not, however, overlook the fact that private schools had a much earlier origin, although before the Act of Uniformity they were always private "grammar" schools, with the same classical curriculum as the public schools. It was the narrower form of Puritanism, with its hatred of the humanities, combined with the intolerance of the Church, that gave rise to the commercial academies that have for more than two centuries degraded our secondary teaching. We read in Mr. Foster Watson's book, *The English Grammar Schools to 1660* (p. 531), that during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries "the Admission Registers of St. John's College, Cambridge, and Gonville and Caius College show that in these two colleges students were entered from private schools in Essex established at little known places such as Bumpstead, Sampford, Moreton, Heydon, Chishull, Mareshall, Horkesley, Stanstead, Foxworth, Ramsey, Hulton." Since what was true of one county and two colleges must have been more or less typical of the whole country and all the colleges, the provision made by private endeavour for secondary schools of a high type must have been a substantial addition to the public supply so grievously impaired by Tudor and Stuart avarice.

state less than a hundred years ago, while Disraeli makes this stinging comment in *Vivian Grey*, published in 1826: "Certain powers were necessarily delegated to a certain set of beings called *ushers*. In the necessity of employing this horrible race of human beings consists, in a great measure, the curse of what is called *private education*. Those who, in all the fulness of parental love, guard their offspring from the imagined horrors of a public school, forget that in having recourse to an Academy for Young Gentlemen they are *necessarily* placing their children under the influence of *blackguards*." Many private schools, of course, were free from enormities of discipline and management, and some few probably gave teaching at least as efficient as the teaching of the bulk of endowed schools. Still the unwelcome fact remains that the Act of Uniformity directly led to the establishment of a system of private instruction which, in spite of individual excellence, and not forgetting the great services now rendered by kindergarten and preparatory schools, has, we think, undeniably been the most characteristic weakness of English education, and which still, for better or worse, is estimated to include 30 per cent. of the secondary teaching of the country.

Charity Schools.—Class-feeling and hatred of Dissent, as savouring of republicanism and endangering social inequality, diverted, in the eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries, whatever public benefactions were made to education into the channel of charity foundations for the poor, such as Colston's School at Bristol, rather than, as in earlier and more liberal times, the establishment of Grammar Schools free for the poor, but often intending the co-education of boys of every rank. The object even of such liberal Churchmen as Butler was now to keep the poor in their place, to teach their children the rudiments and the catechism, while discouraging them from any attempt to rise above their station. Preaching a charity-school anniversary sermon at St. Paul's, Bishop Butler himself said: "The design (of these institutions) was not in any sort to remove poor children out of the rank in which they were born, but keeping them in it, to give them the assistance which their circumstances plainly called for, by educating them in the principles of religion as well as of civil life; and likewise making some sort of provision for their maintenance, under which last I include clothing them, giving them such learning—if it is to be called by that name—as may qualify them for some common employment, and placing them out to it as they grow up." These objects the system was only too successful in ac-

complishing. It did something towards making the ignorant despise Dissent and welcome inequality; it enabled the Church to keep some hold upon the masses by doing a little for their more immediate welfare; but it becomes contemptible when we compare it with the ideals of modern educationists, or with the civic spirit that designed Christ's Hospital and Grammar School in Tudor times—an institution which indeed rescued foundlings and fed, clothed, and taught the poor, but if they were worthy sent them to the University as well. These Charity Schools, founded "on a conception of education partly religious and partly feudal, but almost wholly ignoble and humiliating,"[1] have often lasted down to our own day, and some of them now give a lower grade of secondary instruction. Their scholars still wear a distinctive dress, meant to remind them of their rank as recipients of public benevolence, but occasionally serving the more useful purpose of introducing a picturesque touch of colour and antiquity into the bleak and drab monotony of our modern towns.

The Nineteenth Century.—When we come to the nineteenth century, we find that public opinion gradually awakened from the indifference with which for more than a hundred years it had regarded education; that various Royal Commissions made inquiries and issued more or less complete and valuable reports; that different Acts of Parliament gave effect to at any rate some of the recommendations contained in these reports, to the great gain of the country; that individual and corporate enterprise did increasingly more to provide for the education of different classes and sects; that nearly forty years ago the State recognised elementary education as a national concern, for the adequate supply of which it must make itself responsible by undertaking to organise it and support it with central and local funds; that twenty years ago technical education, in view of foreign competition, received a grant equal to the annual income of all the endowed schools of England; that secondary education proper, after practically marking time for lack of supervision until 1870, and being crippled for lack of funds until 1902, has at last made a tentative effort towards efficiency and its correlated principle of national and comprehensive organisation.

It will be impossible in a rapid review to make mention of all the numerous legislative measures which mark the steps in this development of State control; the interested reader will find them given in detail in Mr. Graham Balfour's *Education Systems of Great Britain and Ireland*, a singularly

[1] Sir Joshua Fitch, article on Education in *Chambers's Encyclopædia*.

complete and valuable account of the legal groundwork upon which our various educational edifices rest. It will suffice for our present purpose if we enumerate the most important of these measures as far as they concern secondary schools, whether directly, as the Endowed Schools Act of 1869, or indirectly, as the Local Government Act of 1888.

Origin of the Charity Commission.—In 1818 Henry Brougham appointed a Commission to inquire into educational charities existing in England and Wales, including the endowed secondary schools, with the exception of the six largest public schools. The House of Commons, through a Select Committee, considered the report of this Commission in 1835, and recommended the institution of a permanent Board of Charity Commissioners, who should suggest schemes of administration. In spite, however, of a further Royal Commission, appointed in 1849 under Lord Chichester, making the same recommendation and reporting that "the evils and abuses are still in existence to a very wide extent," the Charity Commission was not constituted until 1853, and it was not until 1860 that the Commissioners received limited judicial powers which obviated procedure in the Court of Chancery.

Inquiry into the Nine Great Schools.—In 1861 a more immediate step was taken towards the reform of secondary education by the appointment of Lord Clarendon's Commission to investigate the condition of nine leading public schools —Eton, Winchester, Westminster, Charterhouse, Harrow, Rugby, Shrewsbury, St. Paul's, and Merchant Taylors', selected for their importance, not because their state especially courted inquiry. The Commissioners presented their report in 1864, and it is interesting reading. Much had already been done in the way of self-reformation by the schools in question, as a result of the regenerative influence of Rugby on English public-school life; but the Commissioners, who cannot be accused of any tendency to iconoclasm, found it necessary to recommend the formation of new governing bodies; discovered many anomalies of income and position among the assistant masters, both as between the members of each staff, considered separately, and as between school and school; and condemned with some severity the narrowness of the curriculum [1] and the idleness of the pupils. They write (vol. i. p. 31):

"If a youth, after four or five years spent at school, quits it at nineteen, unable to construe an easy bit of Latin or Greek

[1] At Eton they found French optional, and had they inquired ten years earlier, they would have found mathematics also a voluntary subject.

without the help of a dictionary, or to write Latin grammatically, almost ignorant of geography and of the history of his own country, unacquainted with any modern language but his own, and hardly competent to write English correctly, to do a simple sum, or stumble through an easy proposition of Euclid, a total stranger to the laws which govern the physical world, and to its structure, with an eye and hand unpractised in drawing and without knowing a note of music, with an uncultivated mind and no taste for reading or observation, his intellectual education must certainly be accounted a failure, though there may be no fault to find with his principles, character, or manners. We by no means intend to represent this as a type of the ordinary product of English public-school education; but . . . we must say that it is a type much more common than it ought to be . . . and that the proportion of failures is therefore unduly large."

Public Schools Act, 1868.—In 1868, as a result of this report, the Public Schools Act was passed, dealing with the seven boarding schools as non-local in character, but excluding the two London day schools. It required these seven schools to make new statutes for the appointment of new governing bodies, which in their turn should make new statutes to regulate their several institutions. The reform of the teaching was thus left to the good sense of the individual schools, though the careful recommendations of the Commissioners had much effect in guiding and hastening this reform. Since the Act more and more has been done to develop modern sides and embrace such subjects as science, history, and languages in the ordinary curriculum. So long, however, as the older Universities make the knowledge of Greek obligatory for all students, the programme and character of the public schools will be always preponderatingly, sometimes overwhelmingly, classical.

Inquiry into Endowed Schools.—Meanwhile, investigations had been started, by Lord Taunton's Commission in 1864, into the condition of endowed schools, in order that some estimate of our national resources for secondary education might be formed. An admirably complete and statesmanlike report, in twenty volumes, was presented in 1867, dealing not only with Grammar Schools, but with the question of private and proprietary schools, and greatly increasing its value through including reports by Matthew Arnold on the corresponding systems in France, Germany, Switzerland, and Italy. It is not too much to say that the work done by this Commission was by far the most important contribution to

the reform of secondary education that the subject received until the end of the century. Had its recommendations been accepted in their entirety, England would have possessed a national system of organised secondary teaching during the last forty years, instead of being in her present position of just beginning to make up the enormous distance she has lost. In spite, however, of missing this great opportunity for a thorough reform, the country benefited indirectly by the revelations of its scandalous shortcomings. The Report directly led to the development of secondary schools for girls which has characterised our recent history. It found twelve endowed schools for girls in England; ten years later, forty-five others had been provided by the enterprise of public-spirited men and women. But let us turn to a brief survey of what the Commissioners discovered and what advice they gave the Government.

Supply of Schools; its Quantity and Quality.—The Commission ascertained that, in 1867, for a population of 20,066,244 (1861), there were in England and Wales 728 distinct foundations of endowed schools, excluding the nine public schools which had formed the subject of a separate Report. Of these schools, some fifty were in abeyance, and a large number were giving merely elementary instruction, so that really the country possessed 572 endowed Grammar Schools actively engaged in giving some kind of secondary education, and enjoying a net income of £183,066, with exhibitions to the annual value of £13,897. Among these 572 schools, again, only 100 were giving first-grade secondary instruction, 247 being second-grade, and 225 third-grade. Including exhibitions and the aggregate endowments of the nine public schools (which amounted to about £65,000 a year), the total net income of endowed secondary schools came to nearly £277,000 per annum, and the number of scholars receiving some sort of secondary education in endowed schools, including the nine public schools, with 2,956 boys, was nearly 40,000.[1] The number of boys in a defective list of proprietary schools was about 12,000, 4,600 being boarders, and 7,400 day-scholars. Like the endowed schools, only a minority of the proprietary schools were giving a first-grade education. The rest of the nominally secondary instruction in the country was given by private schools, run by individuals for personal profit. The Commissioners write (p. 104): "The schools, whether public or private, which are thoroughly satisfactory are few in proportion to the need. Of these few there are some public

[1] *Report of Schools Inquiry Commission*, 1868, vol. i. p. 150.

and some private; but the private schools are those intended for the upper class and upper half of the middle class. Below that line there is little good education till we come to the elementary schools under Government inspection. That little, however, is in public (*i.e.* endowed and proprietary) schools." On p. 106 we read: "There are few endowments applicable to secondary education which are put to the best use, and very many which are working to little or no use." On p. 107: "There is not (with the exception of some schools for the military and naval services) a single school in England above the class of paupers over which the State actually exercises full control. . . . There is no public inspector to investigate the educational condition of a school, no public board to give advice on educational difficulties, . . . not a single payment from the central Government to the support of a secondary school, not a single certificate of capacity for teaching given by public authorities professedly to teachers in schools, above the primary schools. In any of these senses there is no public school and no public education for the middle and upper classes. If direct pecuniary assistance is not required, the State offers nothing. It might give test, stimulus, advice, dignity: it withholds them all." We read that "in two-thirds of the towns of England there is no public school at all above the primary schools, and that in the remaining third the schools are often insufficient in size or in quality, in a languid condition, unwilling to relinquish classics, unable to give them full play, struggling feebly to accommodate themselves to the discordant aims of the several parts of the community."

Recommendations.—The Commission therefore recommended (1) the creation of a central authority to administer endowments; (2) the establishment of provincial boards to deal with the schools in local groups; (3) the provision for each school of an efficient governing body, representative of the interests of the parents, of the interests of education, and of the past management of the school; (4) the appointment of an Official District Commissioner who should be an *ex officio* member of every governing body, should represent and be paid by the State, and should act as Inspector; (5) the creation of a Council of Examinations (half of the members of which would represent the Universities and the other half the Crown) that should arrange and control the examination of schools in the country, according to their several grades; (6) the registration of efficient private schools, with corresponding privileges of entering for the same examinations and exhibitions as the public schools; (7) that towns and parishes might, if they

chose, be allowed to rate themselves for the purpose of building new, and enlarging old, schools, and of giving a free education to meritorious boys.

Result: Endowed Schools Act, 1869.—Few will deny that these recommendations are wise, and fewer will refrain from regret that by the Endowed Schools Act of 1869 only the first, which deals with a central authority to administer endowments, was made effective by becoming law. By this Act the old Charity Commissioners were suspended and their powers handed over to new Commissioners who were empowered to initiate schemes for the reorganising of endowed schools, and a cumbersome and lengthy procedure was elaborated for giving legal validity to the schemes thus originated. The great public schools were excepted, and no endowments less than fifty years old might be interfered with unless the initiative came from the governing body.

Endowed Schools Act, 1874.—These Endowed School Commissioners continued their functions until 1874, before which date they arranged schemes for 235 schools; their powers were then handed over to the Charity Commissioners, who continued to exercise them until 1902, various select committees being appointed from time to time to inquire into the way in which they were fulfilling their duties.

Number and Income of Endowed Schools in 1891: their Improved Condition.—By 1892 they reported that the endowed Schools of England, apart from buildings, enjoyed an income of £697,132 a year, and that 668 out of 1,262 distinct endowments were then being worked under schemes of which they had approved. Since the Taunton Commission of 1867, new foundations and discoveries had nearly doubled the number of the schools and much more than doubled their income.[1] Better conditions inevitably began to prevail as a result of this improved administration, and nearly every endowed school in the country entered upon a new lease of vigorous life. By the Endowed Schools Act of 1869 the necessity to take orders, if one wished to teach in a public school, was, with certain exceptions, removed, and the confusion of two professions which had hitherto proved so disastrous to education, became increasingly rare. The Grammar Schools came into closer touch with local life and needs; in some cases, as Manchester, they quadrupled their numbers to the great benefit of the surrounding district; in almost every case they aimed at a wider programme and

[1] For many of the preceding, and of the following, facts and figures we are indebted to Mr. Balfour's invaluable book.

displayed a vigorous sense of responsibility and a pathetic desire to become efficient. We say pathetic, because, as we shall see, their utility was generally crippled through lack of funds and want of system. They could not until recently, except in rare cases, hope to return to their proper and original position of distributors of a living and full supply of higher education throughout the land, and even now the majority of them have many obstacles to surmount before they can make their ideals realities and come into their own again.

Revival and Extension of Public Boarding Schools in the Victorian Era: Influence of Arnold of Rugby.—Great men have been schoolmasters before Thomas Arnold, and common sense has sometimes been applied to school reform since his time, but it is impossible to omit mention of his name in considering the enormous expansion of boarding schools of a nominally "public" character in the early part of the Victorian era, a subject which now invites some brief attention. Arnold of Rugby combined in a somewhat rare measure strength and earnestness of character with much of the insight and foresight of the real reformer, and, through the bigotry of his enemies and the enthusiasm of his disciples, he enjoyed a quite extraordinary amount of public notability. He ruled Rugby at a time when, by the passing of the Reform Bill, the upper middle classes began to press on to the occupation of public positions previously outside their reach, and therefore desired to submit their sons to a form of public education supposed to be indispensable for training the governing caste, and increasingly patronised by the old nobility. He inspired confidence in the public by his emphasis upon the religious side of school-life. At Rugby he removed many abuses, and introduced important reforms, such as the making masters, not dames, responsible for the boarding of the boys, and the securing to all assistant masters of that adequate professional income which so honourably distinguishes Rugby to-day. He was in advance of his time in recognising that mathematics, a reading knowledge of modern languages, and, above all, an acquaintance with modern history, must have at least a subordinate place in every education that professes to be liberal. He was in advance of many headmasters of our own time in treating the classics historically and philosophically rather than from the old, narrow, grammatical standpoint. Above all, his life was written by the popular pen of Stanley, and Rugby under his rule has been made immortal by Hughes. Moreover, he was the great father of a greater son. All this combined to make the richer *bourgeoisie* think of Arnold and Rugby when it

meditated upon the education of its boys. A strong tide of popularity therefore set in for the boarding schools, and from several causes, good and bad, it has not as yet shown many signs of ebbing. The good and sufficient causes are (1) the unique training of character which the regenerated boarding school could offer, and which the day school is only recently beginning to develop; (2) the growth of the Empire, with the necessity of boarding schools for parents living out of England; (3) the similar need felt by the country gentry and clergy; (4) the generally disgraceful condition of the local Grammar Schools before 1870; (5) the introduction of railways, making travel easy; (6) the rapid increase in the number of incomes between £500 and £1,000. The less satisfactory causes are (1) a heightened sense of class distinction, especially among the *nouveaux riches*, leading to snobbish imitation of the practice of the aristocracy; (2) an increasing proneness to shirk the trouble of keeping boys at home and collaborating with a day school in their education; (3) the growing fetish-worship of games which can best be indulged by attending a school where they have been given precedence over work; (4) the thoughtless following of fashion. This is not the place to discuss the respective advantages of day and boarding schools; our object has merely been to explain the Victorian public-school foundations. And, if we mention Arnold, it is because, rightly or wrongly, he is identified with the spirit of reform which has made the best of our public schools revive the old ideals of Wykeham, and has prevented the worst from altogether forgetting all ideals.

Delocalised Grammar Schools and Proprietary Schools.—Of those public boarding schools other than the seven investigated in 1861, a glance at the *Public Schools Year Book* for 1909 would lead us to suppose that rather more than forty can claim, in a greater or less degree, to be what is known as "public schools," drawing their pupils from all over the country, and possessing a more than local reputation. They can be divided into two classes: (1) resuscitated Grammar Schools, such as Bromsgrove, Repton, Uppingham, Sherborne, Felsted, Giggleswick, Sedbergh, Tonbridge; and (2) Proprietary Schools, started by an individual or company with the purpose of furthering some special form of public instruction, but not run with a view to profit, being placed in the hands of trustees, and often being recognised by the grant of a Royal Charter. Some of these schools are practically confined to boarders, as Marlborough (founded in 1843, originally for the sons of clergymen), Wellington (1853, especially for the sons of deceased officers), Malvern (1863),

Rossall (1844), Haileybury (reconstituted as a public school from being the old East India Company's College in 1862). Others are frequented in somewhat unequal numbers by both day boys and boarders, as Cheltenham (1841) and Clifton (1862), just as some of the older schools, such as Rugby, Winchester, Tonbridge, Bedford, are, in vastly different proportions, equally day and boarding schools. The newer generation of boarding schools have generally aimed at being less expensive than the old public schools, though they have as a rule tended to raise their fees. However, they can nominally educate a boy for between £80 and £110 a year, whereas it costs £150 to live at Rugby, nearer £200 to be educated at Harrow, and more than £200 to be an Etonian. In spite of being Anglican schools, the majority of them are non-sectarian in spirit, and are largely used by Nonconformists, though the latter, in Mill Hill (refounded 1869) and The Leys (1875), possess schools of an exactly similar type. Some public schools, however, such as Radley (1847) and Lancing (1848), lay especial stress upon denominational high Anglican training. As a rule such schools are entirely without endowments, have had, in their initial stages, a chequered career, are generally burdened with a debt, and have always erected their often beautiful buildings chiefly at the expense of their assistant masters.

Preparatory Schools.—Besides these new and revived public schools, a new type of private school has arisen in the last fifty years, which confines itself to preparing boys for public-school life. As a rule a boy does not go to his public school to-day until he is thirteen or fourteen, whereas he used to begin his troubles at the age of eight or nine. Principally because the public schools, on the advice of the Commissioners, have made an effort to provide an efficient education for adolescent boys alone (except where they possess a junior school) instead of an inefficient training of boys of all ages; and, in a lesser degree, because they pay their masters so inadequately that an increasing number of them are driven to private enterprise in order that they may marry, a growing provision has been made for the preliminary teaching of young boys in private schools, which number from twenty to over a hundred pupils, and which, cram for scholarships apart, have generally been as humane in spirit as they have been relatively efficient in teaching. Indirectly, by securing for little boys a happy life and security from bullying, they have maintained the popularity of the public-school system, through removing what was often in the past one of its worst drawbacks and most shameful features.

Founding and Revival of Great Day Schools.—The last century also saw something, though much less, done for the revival of first-grade education for the middle classes by means of the great day schools. In London, St. Paul's and Merchant Taylors' no longer educate 153 and 250 boys respectively, the limit fixed by their founders and still maintained in 1861, but now number about 580 and 480 pupils; while Dulwich College, with 220 boys in 1861, has now 700. An old foundation was revived in 1837 in the shape of the City of London School, now counting 690 boys. In 1829 King's College School, and in 1830 University College School were founded, and they now respectively educate some 270 and 400 boys. In the provinces, the Manchester Grammar School, educating 250 boys in 1868, has now 899, as well as three preparatory schools; King Edward's School, Birmingham, has grown into a High School with 460 boys, and eight other High or Grammar (Middle) Schools for boys and girls. Bradford Grammar School, with 570 boys, Leeds with 300, Nottingham with 370, Bristol with 355, are other instances of schools which to-day are doing an extensive and valuable work on day-school lines.

Development of Indirect Public Provision for Lower Grade Secondary Teaching.—Before going on to consider the very important legislative changes of the last ten years, and their effect upon secondary education, we must give some account of the measures, good in intention and often in result, but at the same time involving inextricable confusion both in practice and principle, which the State, during the last century, took to supplement the inadequate supply of advanced instruction for the lower and middle classes in this country. Even a brief survey will be useful if it does nothing more than show how grievously education has been handicapped in England by our neglect to look ahead before acting, to plan systems that shall prevent wasteful overlapping in some subjects and total neglect of others, to distinguish different types of instruction and understand their due relation, to act and think logically and consistently—in a word, to organise.

Origin of the Science and Art Department.—As far back as 1786 we discovered that we had something to learn as a nation, and, being a people of shopkeepers, we thought, of course, that the chief thing in need of improvement was commerce, and therefore established a Committee of the Privy Council in Trade, which has since developed into the Civil Service Department known as the Board of Trade. In 1836, this Trade Committee founded a Normal School of Design, followed in 1841 by similar provincial schools all subsidised

by Government grants. In 1851, the International Exhibition was held in London, and made us see that, if we would compete successfully with other nations and retain our commercial predominance, we must do something to promote the technical education of the people. We therefore, in 1852, established a Department of Practical Art in the Board of Trade, and in the following year added to this a Science Division. In 1856, the united "Science and Art Department" was taken from the Board of Trade and was joined with the "Education Establishment" (for giving grants in aid of elementary education) in the new "Education Department." This would seem to suggest an almost supernatural insight on the part of our ancestors into the fundamental principle of educational efficiency—concurrent and harmonious control; but we are speedily dillusioned. Both Departments indeed remained under the direction of the President of the Committee of Council on Education, but they drifted entirely apart in practice and tradition, until in 1884 we find the Education Department proper (for elementary schools) at Whitehall, and the Science and Art Department at South Kensington, each with its own Secretary and permanent head, each "ganging its ain gait" without reference to what the other (much less the Charity Commissioners with their endowed schools) had done or was intending to do, and with something of rivalry and petty jealousy and mutual obstruction.

Higher Grade Board Schools.—Meanwhile, in 1870, School Boards had been set up for the local administration of elementary instruction, and, by interpreting the definition of the Act that an elementary school was one "in which elementary education is the principal part of the education given" to mean that more advanced instruction could be given to the minority of the pupils, some of these Boards, by adding upper classes to those of their schools known as Higher Grade, before long gave, chiefly at the expense of the rates, what was really secondary education of a third-grade type. They thereby severely damaged the unaided and often poor Grammar School of the locality, which could not exist without charging fees, and which could not do efficient work when its income was reduced by parents sending their boys to Board Schools that gave a utilitarian and showy type of lower secondary teaching at a nominal cost. A great number of Grammar Schools were therefore only able to compete with these Higher Grade Schools by following their lead and organising a department as a "Science School," or in other ways qualifying for grants from the Science and Art Department of South Kensington.

"Organised Science Schools."—From 1863 this Department had been subsidising Art by payment on certificates awarded to different types of good drawing. In 1872 it tried to promote a systematic and continuous course of scientific training by making extra grants to those schools or classes which organised a "Science School" with a three-years' course, adding, in 1895, a compulsory literary instruction to the curriculum of these schools, since it half recognised at last the sound principle that all useful scientific teaching can only be based upon a literary foundation. These "Science Schools," in 1894, were organised in thirty-nine Higher Grade Board Schools outside London, and also in sixteen Endowed Secondary Schools, which had submitted part at least of their teaching to the Department's regulations in order to secure financial assistance.[1]

Evening Continuation Schools.—"Science Schools" were also conducted in connection with Evening Continuation Schools, which moreover received grants from the Education Department, even for teaching subjects other than elementary, and were generally supported out of the rates.

The Cockerton Case, 1900.—In 1900 these evening schools numbered 5,263, with 206,335 scholars in average attendance, when they, together with the Higher Grade day schools, were put in an illegal position by the judicial decision, confirmed in the Court of Appeal, in the celebrated case Regina *v.* Cockerton, Mr. Cockerton being the District Auditor of the Local Government Board who had disallowed the expenditure incurred by the London School Board in support of these types of school. It was then decided that a School Board, out of money raised by rates, could only provide the necessary instruction for the elementary curriculum prescribed by the Code of the Education Board, and that it was illegal to educate adults out of funds raised by public rates. To such a height of confusion had things drifted by the State allowing two distinct systems of public instruction to grow up side by side, with separate grants and separate control, and by its not taking the trouble to define anywhere either what "elementary" meant, or what "children" meant, while the local authorities naturally availed themselves of the rating powers conferred under one system, and of the

[1] In 1894 there were in England, outside London, 60 Higher Grade Schools (49 with chemical laboratories, 9 with physical, 46 with science lecture rooms, 28 with art rooms, 49 with workshops, etc.), and 14 Ex-standard Schools, educating 4,606 boys and 2,023 girls; 48 were in county boroughs and 12 in smaller towns. In London there were 3 Higher Grade and 60 Ex-standard Schools, with 1,016 scholars.—*Report* vol. i. p. 53.

grants of both, to meet the obvious needs of the people. By the Education Act of 1902, all teaching, however rudimentary, becomes secondary after four o'clock, and all instruction given by day in a public elementary school is considered elementary, however advanced and technical its character—which is clear, if unconvincing. To-day evening schools are governed under the regulations of the Technological Branch of the Board of Education, which continues the work of South Kensington.

Technical Education.—We must now retrace our steps a few years in order to describe the rise of what is known as Technical Education, a term which, through the anxiety of the old Science and Art Department to extend its utility and control, has come to embrace the teaching of almost everything except the classics, besides those subjects which are really technological, and which the average man is thinking of when he uses the word "technical." As we have seen, South Kensington, for more than half a century, tried to supply a need by subsidising and organising instruction in Science and Art in any type of school that was willing to conform to its regulations; and we have also noted that many of the old endowed secondary schools kept themselves in existence and, in one sense, increased their utility by earning these new grants. In 1894, 265 of such schools were in connection with the Department, of which 25 availed themselves of the examinations only, and not of the grant: for the most part they had been obliged by financial reasons thus to put themselves under the control of South Kensington and to accept its terms as to the curriculum for at any rate their modern side, with the result that one part of the school grew up with a one-sided scientific training, which neglected literary and linguistic studies, while the classical side generally reacted by neglect of science and modern languages.

Origin of Technical Schools.—Meanwhile, in 1889, a new and formidable rival appeared in the field in the shape of Technical Schools. Their origin is interesting; it is also typically English. We saw that the recommendation made by the Taunton Commissioners, in 1867, that local authorities should be created for the administration of local education, was neglected by the ensuing Act. Just twenty years were allowed to elapse before anything was done to give an active and practical expression to local interests, and then nothing at all was done to secure that the help given by local authorities to secondary education should be liberal in spirit and fair in distribution.

The Setting up of County Councils, 1888.—By the Local Government Act of 1888 County Councils were set up,

and immediately after given the power, by the Technical Instruction Act of 1889, to raise a 1*d.* rate for "technical instruction."

"Whiskey Money."—Next, the Local Taxation (Customs and Excise) Act of 1890, by placing at their disposal what is known as "whiskey money" (*i.e.* the residue of the beer and spirit duties), to be applied to technical (including science and art) teaching, suddenly gave them an annual sum equal to the income of all the endowed schools of England, to be devoted to a form of education which, even in its widest interpretation by the Science and Art Department, the constituted arbiter, deliberately excluded the dead languages and non-commercial English. In 1900–1 the "whiskey money" applied to technical instruction amounted to £863,847, while £106,209 was raised by rates in England for the same purpose. With this handsome income the County Councils would have been able to do much for real secondary education, had they not been hampered by a mischievous Act, which both limited their operations and helped on the lamentable confusion between secondary and technical instruction still prevalent in this country alone of European nations. It was forgotten that secondary education is an indispensable basis to all technological teaching, and that an excess in the direction of merely utilitarian education is as pernicious as the narrowest classical training. Law and ignorance therefore combined to encourage the building and multiplication of technical institutes, schools of art, and classes applicable to special industries; while the secondary schools proper were absolutely starved, until South Kensington, by putting as generous an interpretation as possible upon what was meant by "technical instruction," brought about some small diversion of funds into their needy coffers; although, as Mr. Graham Balfour[1] says: "Many of the better secondary schools have either been unable to profit by this outpouring, or have had to sacrifice their educational ideals to specialisation."

Its Distribution in 1894.—In 1894 we find that, out of £316,969 administered by Technical Instruction Committees, £188,755 was spent upon "technical instruction," in its narrow sense, while only £17,169 was paid to secondary schools.

Result of such Distribution.—In countless cases there resulted an absurd amount of overlapping. In many a town where the grammar school was not too inadequately endowed, and could therefore keep up a proper standard of general education without coming under South Kensington, a technical school was hastily established out of local and central funds.

[1] *Educational Systems* (Clarendon Press, 1903), p. 167.

Before long it found itself obliged to give something in the shape of literary training, since its pupils were so ignorant and unprepared that they could not understand at all the technological teaching. But instead of this preliminary general instruction, which was found needful, being entrusted to its proper medium, the secondary school, as is always done in Germany, two schools, often both half filled, would be allowed to do much the same work, and the so-called technical school would frequently debar any boy from entering it after finishing his general education at the grammar school, by fixing an absurdly early limit of age for entrance. The technical school would, perhaps, be receiving £15,000 a year[1] from public funds and charging a nominal fee; the grammar school would, it may be, possess £3,000 a year from endowments and charge a moderate fee. The former was thought by the public to be teaching special industries, the latter to be teaching grammar. As a matter of fact, both schools, with a different degree of efficiency, would be teaching nearly the same subjects, only, in the one case, the public purse was opened to subsidise a kind of teaching that was outside the proper province of the school; in the other case, no money could be got from public funds to supplement a scanty endowment, unless the school chose to submit to an outside control which it had reason to fear would ruin its best educational traditions. Such was the very national solution of our education problem until the recent Act: even to-day, though terms are changed, the problem remains fairly constant, and demands the application of what light and logic we possess if we are to solve it properly.

Agricultural Education.—A very interesting and important development of the Technical Instruction Act of 1889 has been the extension of the teaching of agriculture in the country. By the terms of that Act "agricultural subjects" were directly included as subjects to which grants could be made and "whiskey money" applied, and "manual instruction" was defined as comprehending instruction in "processes of agriculture."

Board of Agriculture Created, 1889.—Besides this, a Board of Agriculture was created in the same year, with the right to distribute a Parliamentary grant of £5,000 for the promotion of agricultural education, and "to undertake the inspection of and reporting on any schools, other than elementary, in which technical instruction, practical or scientific, is given in any way connected with agriculture or forestry."

[1] See the admirable book, *Educational Reform*, by Mr. Fabian Ware (Methuen, 1900), pp. 44, *seq.*

By 1900, £77,000 was being spent by local authorities on agricultural teaching, and the Board of Agriculture was inspecting this teaching, besides subsidising ten centres for agricultural instruction. The Board of Education Act of 1899 laid down that the educational duties of the Board of Agriculture might be transferred to the newly created Board of Education, but up to the present no such transfer has been made. The subject is important in view of the need for rural schools; we shall therefore make further reference to it elsewhere when we consider the proper application of our resources.

Tests of Secondary Schools by External Examinations.—Since in England the State, until quite recently, has only exercised a minimum even of indirect control over secondary schools, contenting itself with periodic commissions of investigation, which might make valuable suggestions that would rarely become law, it is natural that a confused and elaborate system of external examinations has grown up in order to test the absolute, or relative, efficiency of the education which these schools were giving. Naturally, too, private agencies led the way in this as in other provinces of educational progress.

The College of Preceptors.—In 1853, the College of Preceptors, a chartered association of schoolmasters, began to examine pupils at headquarters in what was, for the period, a very liberal curriculum, including Latin, French, English History, Geography, Mathematics, and, for the higher classes, Drawing, or one Science subject, and Greek.

The Society of Arts.—About the same time, the Society of Arts instituted a similar examination, which, by 1858, was conducted in forty centres and passed 197 out of 1,107 candidates. Both these examinations, however, were rather for adults than children; they were confined to persons over fifteen years of age who were leaving, or had left, school.

The Oxford and Cambridge Local Examinations.—The first attempt to induce the Universities to recognise their duty in this respect was made by the late Sir Thomas Acland and Dr. Temple, who held an examination at Exeter in June, 1857; and this was followed with such success by similar examinations in five other counties that the work was taken up in the same year by Oxford University, which appointed delegates to conduct these examinations on a permanent footing in the future. Thus originated the Oxford Local Examinations, and their example was followed the next year by a parallel enterprise on the part of Cambridge. These are the Middle-class Examinations of which Matthew Arnold speaks with such enthusiasm as agents for good in his preface

to *A French Eton*: the ill chance of a name which seems to imply a social rather than an intellectual limitation, militated, however, for some time against their wide extension. Both Universities continue their practice of issuing junior, senior, and honours certificates, which, with the exception of honours, are open to candidates of all ages, and, since 1870, of both sexes; and, what is of more importance, schools are examined and inspected together with, or apart from, the examination for certificates. Similar local examinations and inspections have since been conducted by the other Universities, led by Durham, and they are now generally admitted to be an important sphere of the activity of every University.

The Oxford and Cambridge Schools Examination Board.—The adequate examination, however, of the more important secondary schools of the country demanded a more specially directed effort on the part of the Universities. The utility of an annual examination was insisted on by the Endowed Schools and the Charity Commissioners, and provision was generally made for it in their schemes. The initial step was taken by the Headmasters in their 1870 Conference, when they appointed a committee to confer with the older Universities upon the institution of a leaving-examination, corresponding to the *Abiturienten-examen* provided by the State in Germany. The result was the institution, in 1873, of a Joint Board, which should award, upon examination, certificates exempting from the matriculation, or first examination, of the Universities. In 1878 the examination was extended to girls, and in 1883 a lower certificate for younger candidates was started. Very ably have these examinations been conducted, and it is no exaggeration to say that they, more than any other agency, have raised and maintained the standard of our English schools; and, moreover, the Joint Board has, for many years, added to its duties the inspection of schools by its examiners. The idea of a certificate that should exempt from matriculation in more than one University has recently been adopted by the northern Universities of Lancashire and Yorkshire, and this step has done much to prove the possibility and the great desirability of unifying examinations by establishing a common standard.

The London Matriculation Examination.—The University of London, founded in 1840, has also during a long period of years provided by its matriculation examination a recognised certificate which serves as a preliminary qualification for many professions, and has proved useful to thousands who have not intended to proceed to a degree. Since 1902 London University has instituted a leaving-certificate for

schools, that shall exempt from matriculation, on the analogy of the Oxford and Cambridge Higher Certificate, and has been active in school inspection.

Associations of Various Types of Teachers.—Another striking sign of progress has been the professional awakening to the importance of concerted action in dealing with the problems of secondary education. The Headmasters' Conference was first held at Uppingham in 1869, and this annual meeting of the heads of the more important public schools has since given secondary education every opportunity of internal reform, however little its chief representatives have hitherto availed themselves of such opportunity. Their example has been followed by the incorporation of associations representing different sections of teachers, to the great advantage, not only of their separate members, but of their common profession. In 1906 a Federal Council of these various bodies was established, and it now embraces representatives of the Headmasters' Conference,[1] of the College of Preceptors, and of the Associations of Headmasters, Headmistresses, Assistant Masters, Assistant Mistresses, Preparatory Schools, and Private Schools. It is certain that the united recommendations of such a council of experts will carry weight, both in the country at large and in the shaping of the Government's policy.

The Beginnings of National Reform.—We are now ready to consider the latest, and by far the most efficacious, attempt to reorganise secondary education in this country. The chaos into which things had drifted through the separation of departments, the lack of comprehensive State supervision, and the general ignorance, even on the part of local educational authorities, as to the real nature of secondary instruction, combined, it must be added, with much public apathy about educational reform, had made it imperative that the house should be set in order without delay.

The Bryce Commission of Inquiry into Secondary Education, 1894-5.—It was the desperate condition of the smaller endowed schools that first won the attention of a small body of public-spirited men and women, and their efforts resulted in the Government appointing, in 1894, a Royal Commission, under the chairmanship of Mr. Bryce, to inquire into the condition of secondary education in this country. For the first time women were included among the Commissioners, whose names were as follows: Mr. James Bryce, Sir J. T. Hibbert, the Rev. the Hon. Edward

[1] Since we wrote the above, the Conference has seceded from the Federal Council. *Tant pis!* But "we shall march prospering—not thro' their presence."

Lyttelton, Sir Henry Roscoe, Dean Maclure, Dr. Fairbairn, Sir Richard Jebb, Dr. Wormell, Messrs. Henry Hobhouse, Michael E. Sadler, H. Llewellyn Smith, G. J. Cockburn, Charles Fenwick, and J. H. Yoxall, Lady Frederick Cavendish, Mrs. Bryant, and Mrs. Henry Sidgwick. Their report was presented in nine volumes in 1895, and offered recommendations which have, in the main, been since made effective by legislation. Before stating the more important of these recommendations, it may be well for us to realise, by means of a few statistics, how badly they were needed.

The 1897 Census of English Secondary Schools: its Disclosures.—In 1897, the Education Department made its first census of the schools in England which were providing secondary instruction. There was no regular system of classification, and many private schools were included which were giving elementary, rather than secondary, teaching. For instance, out of the 6,209 "secondary" schools included in the report, 1,423 had no pupils over the age of fourteen, and it is probable that only a very small number of these were preparatory to the higher schools, and therefore giving a preliminary type of secondary instruction. All schools in receipt of grants as elementary, such as higher grade Board Schools, were omitted from the list, but day "technical" schools were included. Some few schools did not supply statistics at all. Still, the result was complete enough to give information of the highest value—and of sufficiently striking character. We find, then, that on June 1, 1897, there were 6,209 so-called secondary schools (including the "public" schools), of which 1,958 were for boys, 3,173 for girls, while 1,078 were entered as "mixed" schools. In these schools there were 291,544 pupils, 158,502 being boys and 133,042 girls, amounting to 5·4 and 4·5 per thousand respectively of the total population. Of the boys, 40·6 per cent. were under twelve, 50 per cent. were between twelve and sixteen, and only 9·3 per cent. were over sixteen. Out of the boys' schools, 66·9 per cent. were private enterprise schools, 3·6 subscribers', 2·5 companies', 25·6 "endowed,"[1] and 1·4 belonged to local authorities. Out of private schools for boys, 55·7 per cent. had under 31 pupils, and 71·1 "mixed" private schools were in a similar condition: in purely boys' schools, 35·7 per cent. of the pupils were boarders, and 343 schools out of 1,958 had no day boys at all. Of masters exclusively attached to the school, 55·9 per cent. were graduates, in boys' schools, and 25·8 per cent. in "mixed" schools; while, of the visiting staff, the percentages of men-graduates were 18·5 and 10·5 respec-

[1] This endowment might only amount to a few pounds.

tively. Thirty-two per cent. of boys' schools and 81·3 per cent of "mixed" schools had no graduate at all on their staff, inclusive of the headmaster. Of the 502 "endowed" schools for boys, 346 were regulated by a scheme under the Endowed Schools Act, 33 by Royal Charter, 22 by Act of Parliament, 22 by a scheme of the Court of Chancery, 44 by a scheme under the Charitable Trusts Act, and the rest by some other legal instrument. It is outside our plan to consider the secondary education of girls, but the statistics for girls' schools provided by this census are even more appalling—*e.g.* only 12 per cent. of the mistresses exclusively attached to such schools had qualified by examination for degrees! And if we reflect that, out of the 1,958 purely boys' schools, 626 were without a single graduate man or woman teacher; that 846 of them had less than 31 pupils; that 97 had not a single boy over the age of twelve; that, out of the 46,617 boys attending private schools for boys only, all except 5,589 were under the age of fifteen (as compared with the 18,202 boys above fifteen in the total of 59,517 boys attending endowed schools)—if we reflect on what this means when we are dealing with a class of schools the essential nature of which is to give secondary, not primary, teaching; to do work that demands the highest professional qualifications; and to provide an all-round education of body, brain, and character—we are filled with amazement and shame that such a system of general sham and pretentious inefficiency could have survived until the end of the nineteenth century, and incline to say, with Matthew Arnold, "The reason why no effective remedy is applied to this serious evil is simply . . . because the upper classes among us do not want to be disturbed in their preponderance, or the middle classes in their vulgarity."[1] Nor do we wonder that this same high authority (for Matthew Arnold is undoubtedly the greatest Englishman hitherto professionally connected with education) returned from his investigations into Continental systems, on behalf of two Royal Commissions, with the insistent cry: "*Organise your secondary and superior instruction*"; or that Prof. Sadler, upon whose shoulders no small part of Arnold's mantle has fallen, both during and since his official connection with the Education Office, has untiringly drawn comparisons with Continental practice, and endeavoured, notwithstanding a complete appreciation of English excellence in forming character, to introduce some degree of order into our chaos at home by demonstrating the clear and efficient methods of teaching and administration which are almost universally prevalent abroad.

[1] In Ward's *Reign of Queen Victoria*, ii. pp. 270 ff.

Recommendations of the Bryce Commission.—The most important of the recommendations of the Bryce Commissioners were as follows :

(1) The creation of a Board of Education, that should absorb the Educational work of the Charity Commissioners, of the Science and Art-Department, and of the existing Elementary Department. This Board should be under a responsible Minister of Education, with a Permanent Secretary, and should work in collaboration with a Consultative Council, of which one-third should be appointed by the Crown, one-third by the Universities, and one-third co-opted.

(2) The appointing of local authorities in every county and county borough, partly by the Education Minister, as to a majority by the existing local authorities, and partly co-opted. These local authorities should provide adequate secondary education, up to the requirements of the Central Office, and should have the power, taking into consideration existing provision, to establish new schools, to initiate schemes for educational endowments, to supervise endowed schools, to inspect the sanitary condition of all schools, and to prepare a list of such as were efficient. They should also, subject to the approval of the Central Office, appoint inspectors who should inquire rather into the administrative than into the educational working of the schools.

(3) The regulation of examinations by the Central Office, while leaving the conduct of them to the Universities and other competent external bodies selected by the governing bodies.

(4) The application of departmental secondary grants and the " whiskey money " to the new system of secondary schools, and the recommendation of the raising of a local rate, not exceeding *2d.* in the pound.

(5) The supervision and regulation by the Central Office of such schools as, being " non-local " in character, were exempted, on the recommendation of the Consultative Council, from the jurisdiction of local authorities.

(6) The raising of the salaries of teachers by the school authorities, the recognition of their right of appeal to the governing body against dismissal, their gradual registration, and their being encouraged and helped by the Universities to undergo adequate professional training.[1]

Board of Education Act, 1899.—In view of these recommendations, and of the equal need of reform in primary education, Lord Salisbury's Government, in 1899, proceeded to take the first step in the direction of evolving a national

[1] For a full, cheap reprint, see *Secondary Education : Handbook of the Education Act of 1899* (Knight, 1900).

system, correlating and interconnecting every grade of education, by passing the Board of Education Act. By this Act a Board of Education was established on April 1, 1900, consisting of a President, the principal Secretaries of State, the First Commissioner of the Treasury, and the Chancellor of the Exchequer. By its provisions a Consultative Committee of eighteen members, fifteen men and three women, two-thirds of whom should be qualified to represent the views of Universities and other bodies interested in teaching, was appointed in August 1900 to advise the Board on any matter referred to it, and to frame the regulations for a Register of Teachers.

The Consultative Committee.—Members of the Committee are to hold office for six years, and it is specially provided that all shall not retire at the same time. By an Order in Council of February 1907, the members are increased to twenty-one, the additional three being appointed by the Board of Education. The present members [1] (1909) are:

Right Hon. A. H. Dyke Acland, *Chairman.*
Mr. Arthur C. Benson, C.V.O., late Assistant-master, Eton College, Fellow of Magdalene College, Cambridge.
†Mrs. Sophie Bryant, D.Sc.
Miss Isabel Cleghorn, Headmistress of the Girls' Department, Healy Bank Council School, Sheffield.
Sir Henry F. Hibbert, Chairman of the Lancashire Education Committee.
†Right Hon. Henry Hobhouse, Ecclesiastical Commissioner and Chairman of the Somerset County Council.
Mr. Marshall Jackman, Headmaster of the "Michael Faraday" Council School, Walworth.
Miss Lydia Manley, Principal of the Stockwell Training College.
Mr. A. Mansbridge, General Secretary of the Workers' Educational Association.
Dr. Norman Moore, M.D., F.R.C.P., Physician to St. Thomas's Hospital.
Mr. J. L. Paton, High Master of the Manchester Grammar School, and Ex-President of the Teachers' Guild.
Sir Henry R. Reichel, Principal of the University College of North Wales.
†Mr. Michael E. Sadler, Professor of the History and Administration of Education at the Victoria University, Manchester.
Ven. Ernest G. Sandford, Archdeacon and Canon Residentiary of Exeter Cathedral.
Mr. David J. Shackleton, M.P.
Mr. George Sharples, Ex-President of the National Union of Teachers.
Mr. Arthur Sidgwick, Fellow and Tutor of Corpus Christi College, Oxford.
†Mrs. Henry Sidgwick.
Rev. Dr. G. J. Waller, late Principal of the Westminster (Wesleyan) Training College.
Rev. James Went, Headmaster of the Wyggeston School, Leicester.
[One Vacancy.]

[1] The members marked † were members of the Bryce Commission on Secondary Education.

The New Board of Education.—The Board of Education, under the terms of the Act, is charged with the superintendence of education in England and Wales. It at once took the place of the Education Department and the Science and Art Department, and it was declared lawful for the Sovereign in Council to transfer to the Board any of the powers of the Charity Commissioners or of the Board of Agriculture in matters which related to Education. By October 1902, all powers of the Charity Commissioners, except the appointing of official trustees for charitable funds and making orders for vesting or transferring such funds, had accordingly been transferred; but, up to the time of writing, the powers of the Board of Agriculture with respect to education have been retained, and there is no immediate prospect of this anomalous duplication of control being removed. In all other respects a symmetrical and workable system has been devised, and since secondary education was separated from technical in April 1903, there is now a complete differentiation of departments within a single unified Board, each branch being under the immediate direction of its own Principal Assistant Secretary, while all the branches are united under the supreme general control of the President and Permanent Secretary. By this means adequate correlation is established and overlapping prevented, the just allocation of grants to the several kinds of education is, for the first time, made possible, and at the same time the division into distinct departments fully secures the principle of applying specialised knowledge to the detailed working of the three separate branches. In fact, the obvious business rule of definite partition of labour under one responsible direction is at last applied to a Government Department in charge of a supremely important national interest. When once the Board of Agriculture has handed over its educational powers, at least as far as schools are concerned, we shall possess a beautifully symmetrical piece of administrative machinery that even France might envy. In this matter, to the patient many things have come. The present President of the Board of Education is the Right Hon. Walter Runciman, the Permanent Secretary Sir Robert L. Morant. The Principal Assistant Secretaries in charge of the several departments are Mr. Selby Bigge of the Elementary Education Branch, Hon. W. N. Bruce of the Secondary Schools Branch, and Mr. F. G. Ogilvie for the Technological Branch. In the Secondary Schools Branch there are three Assistant Secretaries, four Senior and eleven Junior Examiners; Mr. W. C. Fletcher is the Chief Inspector; Messrs. J. W. Headlam, R. P. Scott,

F. Spencer, and F. B. Stead are Staff Inspectors; and there are besides twenty-seven ordinary full Inspectors, four of whom are women, exclusively attached to this Department. By the Act of 1899 the Board have a right, in England, "to inspect any school supplying secondary education and desiring to be so inspected, either by their officers or, on the advice of the Consultative Committee, by any University or other organisation." This inspection now naturally includes all schools receiving grants, and extends to such others as desire official recognition.

Establishment of an Office for Special Inquiries and Reports, and of an Education Library, 1896.—While noting the reconstruction and orderly arrangement of our Education Department, with all its branches now housed together in a noble building in Whitehall, mention must be made of the institution and development of a much-needed Educational Intelligence Department, in the shape of an office for Special Inquiries and Reports, and of a central, and very complete, Education Library. The first Director of Special Inquiries was Mr. Michael E. Sadler, who, between his appointment in 1896 and his retirement in 1903, so abundantly justified his department by the value of the reports he issued upon the various educational problems and systems of England, the Colonies and foreign countries, that there can no longer be any question about the necessity of continuing, at any financial cost, the publication of matter of such supreme importance for the informing of the public interested in education and the guiding of the authorities which are busy with its reorganisation in this country. Since Prof. Sadler left the Board, the office has been ably conducted on somewhat different lines by his successor, Dr. Heath, and more than twenty volumes have already appeared, dealing with the solution of educational difficulties by many different countries, and substantially contributing to the growth of a systematic study of comparative education. It were much to be desired that England should follow the generous example of America by distributing, at national expense, these reports throughout the schools and libraries of the country. No economy could be more false than that which prevents a great advantage by refusing a small outlay: in this case the cost would be, relatively, trifling, and the gain enormous. As yet it is idle to pretend that the volumes reach all those readers who most need the information they contain, and one, at least, is out of print. A more liberal grant is still required before the Department can realise its full utility as a central bureau freely distributing the best

educational intelligence to England and her Colonies. As to the Library, we will only say that, in its new home and under its present direction, it is admirably supplying a long-felt want and will prove, as it becomes more widely known, to be a feature, in our governmental provision for education, of peculiar value to educationists both at home and from abroad.[1]

Necessity for Further Legislation.—We must now pass on to the consideration of the Act which continued the reform of which the new Board of Education had been the first instalment. It had long been evident that it was useless to attempt the reorganising of any single branch of education. The great blunder of the past had been the policy of allowing separate branches to develop without any system or correlation, and of relying upon individual and civic enterprise to fill up, as best they could, and quite independently, the growing gaps in our provision for educating the different grades of society. The poorer voluntary schools and the small country School Boards could only be improved by changed control and redistribution of funds: the Higher Grade Schools which had, with praiseworthy energy, endeavoured to supply the lack of third-grade secondary

[1] We note with pleasure that, as a result of the Federal Conference on Education held in 1907, and its unanimous recognition of "the importance of a permanent central bureau of educational information," the Board have undertaken "to circulate their reports and documents in larger numbers to the Educational Departments of India and the Colonies; to collect and circulate at regular intervals information as to the qualifications required for teachers and the conditions of promotion in different parts of the Empire; to circulate a quarterly list of accessions to the Board of Education Library; with the approval of the India and Colonial Offices, to place the Director of Special Inquiries and Reports in direct communication with the Education Departments of India and the Colonies; to assist the Indian and Colonial Governments by selecting teachers for them in the future without charge, and to make confidential reports to the Governments concerned, as far as may be possible, on the character and qualifications of English teachers seeking employment in India or one of the Colonies; and to do their best to make the scheme for placing English teachers in French and German schools available for British subjects with suitable qualifications from the Colonies . . ." (*Report*, 1906-7, p. 24). The concluding words refer to an excellent and useful arrangement, arrived at by the several Governments of England, France, and Prussia, by which teachers of modern languages can be interchanged between the different countries, and in return for conversational instruction be maintained for a year or two at the expense of the school to which they are attached. Nothing could render greater service to modern-language teaching and to the mutual understanding of different national methods which is so desirable for every country. In the year 1906-7, 42 English *Assistants*—27 men and 17 women—were placed in France; 8 men in Germany; and 18 French *Assistants*—6 men and 12 women—were appointed to English schools.

instruction, had been declared illegal by the confirmed Cockerton judgment, and were only continued by temporary legislation. Secondary education had been examined and found wanting, in every sense of the word, by the Bryce Commission: of the recommendations of these Commissioners only one—the reconstruction of the several departments into a unified Central Board, advised by a Consultative Committee—had been carried into effect: it was generally agreed that not only did elementary education need unifying in each district, but that, as far as possible, both elementary, technical, and secondary instruction ought to be brought under the general control of the same local authority, just as they had already been united under one supreme supervision by the newly instituted Board of Education, since only thus could overlapping be prevented and civic sympathy and interest proportionately bestowed. That local authorities would be established for secondary education had been a certainty since the Bryce Commission, and their institution could not be delayed much longer. Yielding then to the pressure of the Church for relief for its voluntary schools, Mr. Balfour's Government, after fifty-nine contentious discussions in the Commons, passed an Education Act, which became law on December 18, 1902, and of which the following are the chief provisions affecting secondary schools:

Education Act, 1902.—(1) The County Councils and County Borough Councils were made the sole local authorities for education other than elementary. They were to continue to receive the "whiskey money," but, by the repeal of the Technical Instruction Act, they could now expend it on secondary, as well as technical, teaching; and they were to be obliged to spend the whole of it on education other than elementary, carrying forward towards this object any balance left at the end of the year. Besides this money, County Councils were empowered to raise a rate not, without leave, exceeding *2d.* in the pound, and County Borough Councils an unlimited rate, for similar purposes.

(2) The Councils of Non-County Boroughs and of Urban Districts, which, when the population was above 10,000 and 20,000 respectively, were recognised as local authorities for elementary education, were *not* similarly recognised for secondary education, but they were given the power of raising, concurrently with the higher county rate, a rate not exceeding *1d.* in the pound, in order to promote such supply of higher instruction as they thought necessary.

(3) For County and County Borough Councils there must be an Education Committee for higher instruction, which

may or may not be the same as that for elementary education, and must in any case equally be consulted by the Council. As to such committees the Council must appoint the majority of members, but they must include persons of experience in education and knowing the needs of the various kinds of local schools, some of whom must be women, and who may be teachers or officials of schools aided, provided, or maintained by the Council.

(4) The local authority, in consultation with the Board, are to supply or aid higher education and promote the general co-ordination of all forms of instruction, always having regard to the existing supply of schools.

(5) All denominational teaching is disallowed in any school provided by the Council, except under special conditions by which all denominations, at their own cost, shall have equal facility for giving such teaching.

(6) Higher education includes the training of teachers for elementary schools, except where such training is given at a public elementary school, and such training is therefore at the charge of the higher education funds.

(7) All classes carried on in the evening light give "secondary" instruction (however elementary the subjects taught) and are also paid for by higher education funds.

(8) Local authorities for higher education can make provision for higher instruction outside their own area, and provide scholarships to be held at higher schools outside their area, if it be to the advantage of their own population.

Education (London) Act, 1903.—By the Education (London) Act of the following year, the London County Council was made the single local authority for higher education within the area of its jurisdiction; while elementary schools were put under the control of separate bodies of managers for each Municipal Borough, two-thirds of every such body being appointed by the Borough Council, and one-third by the County Council.

The Tentative Adjustments to the New Environment, following on these Acts.—It now remains to summarise, as rapidly as may be, the progress that has been made, since the passing of the Act of 1902, in the direction of establishing throughout the country a supply of secondary schools with some pretension to being adequate alike in quantity and in quality. At first, much time was necessarily spent in setting up the proper local machinery for administering the different branches of instruction; and the new Board of Education could only gradually master the educational and legal

bearings of the various problems brought for the first time within its centralised control. Writing in 1903, Mr Graham Balfour said (p. xxiii): "In the rush of work which falls on the new authorities it is very plain that secondary education will for long come off second best"; and his prediction has proved only too true, in spite of the increasingly enlightened efforts of the Board to provide direction and encouragement. The various steps of this enlightenment can, perhaps, be best marked by a brief review of the statements bearing upon Secondary Schools which are contained in the Board's Annual Reports. They will certainly be found sufficiently suggestive of the chaos and confusion still characterising the whole subject of Higher Instruction in this country, and, though the admission of mistakes is always tacit, it is gratifying to see that little time was wasted in their correction. Indeed the programme of the Board has, perhaps inevitably, been so incessantly readjusted during the last five years that, like its President, it has only begun to be known before it is changed. But change is, at any rate, better than stagnation, even if alteration is not necessarily growth, and Mr. Graham Balfour is, we will trust, right in calling the chaos "a chaos of creation out of which order will in time evolve."

The Policy of the Board of Education as displayed in the Annual Reports: its interesting Variations and Development.—In the *Report* of 1902-3 we find technical and secondary instruction still joined together under the general heading, "Higher Education," Schools of Science and Day Secondary Schools being now renamed Secondary Day Schools "A" and "B" respectively. The former prescribes thirteen hours a week of science, including five hours' mathematics; the latter (83 in number, of which 69 are Endowed Schools) giving only nine hours to the joint subjects. Ninety-five Secondary Schools have been inspected, including 31 already in receipt of grants. When we turn to the *Report* of 1903-4, we are told that the establishment of the new local authorities is practically complete, and that they are setting "energetically and tactfully" to work. At the same time it is noted that some of them have too utilitarian a view of education, encouraged by the old Technical Instructions Act. In order to check this tendency to substitute a "too exclusively scientific for a truly liberal education," the new regulations wisely encouraged "B" schools by raising their grant, while maintaining the previous grant given to "A" schools, on condition that the prescribed course was begun at a later age than before. The literary side of Secondary Schools was this year greatly strengthened by the appointment of a Chief Inspector

and three Staff Inspectors, all with special literary and linguistic qualifications. The *Report* of 1904-5 notes that in 1903-4 "A" schools were receiving £137,568 in grant for 32,625 scholars, being an average of £5 12*s.* 4*d.* per scholar; while "B" schools contained 19,889 scholars following approved courses, for which they only received a grant of £37,680, being an average of £2 4*s.* 8*d.* per pupil. As a result, however, of the new regulations, which established a more uniform scale of grants (in spite of additional grants to "A" schools), and did away with the distinction in terminology between the two types of schools, 482 schools in all (including 244 Endowed and 61 Municipal) had now come under the Board's regulations, with 63,782 pupils taking an approved course. In order to discourage still more premature scientific specialisation, and to increase the efficiency of Secondary Schools, the Board now announced its intention of stopping, from January 1, 1906, onwards, its grants in aid of Local Science and Art Scholarships, leaving their provision entirely to the local authorities, as best cognisant of the needs of a district for specialised study, and of the capacity of candidates to profit by a Secondary School course.[1] The money thus diverted was to be used to raise the general level of Secondary Schools, and it was intimated that any school which, after a reasonable time, failed to keep an adequate proportion of its scholars through the last two years of the prescribed four years' course, would lose its grants and cease to be a Secondary School. The minimum science hours were to be reduced, and the first two years of the course were to provide a general training, including the learning of French and Latin; while the last two could be given to a more specialised instruction in Classics, Modern Languages, or Science. Under certain conditions of devoting all income and property to educational objects without financial profit, Companies' Schools were now made eligible for recognition and grants.

The *Report* of 1905-6 is the *liber aureus* of the Board for Secondary Schools, devoting over twenty pages to a vigorous statement of deficiencies and proper aims. It recognises that local authorities are slowly gaining wisdom, but only at the expense of "many false starts, much waste labour and misapplication of machinery," through not knowing the meaning of super-primary education; and it emphasises the need of warning, watching, co-ordination, and encouragement by the central authority, laying it down that the "limit of useful

[1] This intention is only on the point of being realised: in the estimates for 1908-9 a grant to the tune of £35,000 is made in aid of such scholarships, but in those for 1909-10 it drops to £550.

State control is to be found at the point where it ceases to be an expanding and stimulating force, and tends to fetter or sterilise." It considers that the main object for the time being should be to improve the quality, rather than the quantity, of secondary instruction, since a good quality would create an effective demand. It notes that, in 1905-6, 684 schools (in England and Wales) were already recognised, and that 110 more were already applying for recognition; while it announced the preparation of a new list (published in the autumn of 1908) of recognised efficient secondary schools, including those schools which, while not applying for, or qualified for, grants, should, after being fully inspected free of cost, be deemed efficient by the Board. It is hoped thereby to exercise an indirect pressure upon schools not yet under the Board's influence, by establishing a recognised standard of efficiency throughout the country. Among defects referred to are the lamentable teaching of English, especially in boys' schools, the allowing the simultaneous beginning of two foreign languages, the underpayment and overworking of assistant teachers, the lack of an effective entrance-test for scholars, and the appalling inadequacy of the income of many endowed schools. The local education authorities are recommended to test the claims of the institutions professing to supply secondary education by means of inspection by the Board, and, after determining the proportion of the cost necessary for efficiency that they will bear, to make their grant dependent on efficiency. Municipal Secondary Schools are convicted of still giving a too predominantly scientific instruction, to the neglect of English and other literary subjects, of being housed in buildings generally unsuitable for secondary day-school purposes, and of being too often "managed," as well as "controlled," by the local authority, which should delegate certain well-defined functions of management to governing bodies or managing committees, reserving for itself only control over finance and over all important points of policy. In view of all these considerations, the Report foreshadows an increased grant on certain conditions, which the Board considers will make for the greater unification of education, while emphasising the larger and more liberal spirit of training which is of the essence of the secondary school.

Conditions for Present Grants by the Board.—What these conditions are will best be seen by turning to the *Report* of 1906-7, and the *Regulations for Secondary Schools for the Year beginning August* 1907. The object of the regulations is defined as "the encouraging in schools claiming State aid, of freedom from denominational restrictions, of

representative local control, and of accessibility to all classes." With a view to this the old system of grants of £2, £3, £4, and £5 respectively, on scholars over twelve years of age, in the first, second, third, and fourth years of their approved course, was abolished, and new grants of £2 for each scholar between ten and twelve who had previously been two years in an elementary school, and £5 for each scholar between twelve and eighteen years of age on the first day of the school year, were instituted, on condition that (1) the Governing Body of the school should contain a majority of representative governors appointed by the local authority, or elected by popular local constituencies; (2) there should be entire freedom from denominational restrictions; (3) a quarter of the total number of scholars should be free scholars from elementary schools who could prove fitness for secondary instruction. Those schools who failed to qualify by fulfilling these conditions were to receive grants at the rate of £2 and £2 10*s.*, in lieu of £2 and £5, and to be paid no additional grants. At the same time, so many dispensations were made from the above rules in favour of exceptional cases, that they caused little practical hardship, and the *Regulations for* 1908 continue to waive the conditions laid down, if the Board is convinced that the educational needs of a district are best served by so doing. It is, however, made clear that such exceptions are in favour only of existing schools already receiving grants. Thus, no change has taken place in the constitution of many governing bodies, and the Board reduces or varies the number of free places "on sufficient grounds in the case of any particular school or year," and pupils holding scholarships from public elementary schools count towards the provision of free places. Recently, also, the free scholars can be transferred from one secondary school to another without ceasing to count for the £2 grant, or towards the required proportion of free pupils in their new school. Besides these administrative changes, greater freedom is now given to the school authorities *in* planning the curriculum, and in the methods by which it is made effective. No minimum time is to be allotted to any particular subject; but the Board must be assured that due continuity of instruction is given in each subject, and an adequate time devoted to each. The curriculum must embrace English, one other language, Geography, History, Mathematics, Science, and Drawing. Where two other languages besides English are taught, one must be Latin, unless its omission is for the proved educational advantage of the school; while a varied curriculum is allowed to individual pupils or special classes. It is now laid down

that no school can be recognised as secondary unless (1) an adequate proportion of the pupils remain, at least, four years in the school; and (2) an adequate proportion remain up to, and beyond, the age of sixteen, though, in some rural areas and small towns, the Board is willing to substitute a three years' course, and the age of fifteen for sixteen.[1]

Need for a Survey of the Present State of Secondary Education.—The criticism of this control by the Board we shall reserve for later chapters, in which the problems of administration and of the curriculum will be dealt with more adequately by separate treatment. For the moment it remains with us to try and form a rough estimate of the present position of Secondary Education, both as regards its quantity and its quality, and then, with what material we possess, hazard a statement as to the cost it involves. Up to now all such estimates are necessarily very tentative, since, apart from the reports published by the different local authorities upon the supply of Higher Education within their area, and the statistics given by the Board about the schools under their control, we are still without any authorised statement which should give a detailed and complete account of Secondary Education, in all its grades and under every type of management, as it develops in England from year to year. The drawing up of such a statement is one of the most urgent needs of the time, in order that the absolute and relative provision of schools may be known. Its undertaking is obviously within the sphere and duty of the Board, and cannot be neglected without scandal when once the local authorities have completed their individual reports. Up to the present much invaluable work has been done in these local surveys, which have been entrusted, as a rule, to singularly competent hands. Prof. Sadler has written a masterly series of Reports on the state of Higher Education in Sheffield, Liverpool, Birkenhead, Huddersfield, Newcastle-upon-Tyne, Exeter, Essex, Hampshire, and Derbyshire, all of which, especially that on Essex, will be found by the reader as suggestive in their constructive and comparative statements as they are minute in their survey of each district. Further reports on similar lines are Prof. Adams's on Hertfordshire, Prof. Rippmann's on Croydon, Prof. Hughes's on Birmingham and Coventry, Mr. J. L. Holland's on Newport, Monmouthshire, Sir Philip Magnus's on Cardiff, and the Reports on Kent, Middlesex, Wiltshire, Southport, the Isle of Man, Leeds, Lincoln, Chester, and Lancaster,

[1] The belated *Report* of 1907-8, which has just appeared (March 1909), indicates no change worth notice in the policy outlined above.

while others are in course of preparation. While we are waiting for a complete survey, an official statement, giving comparative statistics based on the reports hitherto locally issued, is badly needed.

Estimate of the Number of Boys in English Secondary Schools.—As to the number of boys receiving secondary instruction in this country, we are under a special obligation to Mr. H. Bompas Smith, the Headmaster of Lytham, for allowing us to quote the estimate he has made for the forthcoming book on our Scholarship System which he has written in collaboration with Prof. Sadler. His figures are based on English schools only, and are largely derived from the numbers given in the *Public Schools Year Book* and the *Schoolmasters' Year Book*. They are necessarily inaccurate, but, until the Board realises its duties by providing us with the much-needed official statistics, they afford the only estimate available. According to Mr. Bompas Smith's calculations, there are, out of the 97 English schools represented at the Headmasters' Conference, 58 first-grade Public schools which have a majority of boarders, and 39 which are primarily day schools. Between them these schools have during the last five years won about 90 per cent. of the open scholarships at Oxford and Cambridge. The first category educates roughly 18,000 boys, of whom nearly 16,000 are boarders; the second approximately 13,500 boys, of whom about 12,000 are day boys. Next, after the information given in the *Schoolmasters' Year Book*, it appears that the second-grade Endowed schools number about 430, educating nearly 50,000 boys, of whom only about 6,750 are boarders. Mr. Bompas Smith groups these schools roughly into three types: (1) the country Grammar schools, about 40 of which are co-educational; (2) second-grade schools in towns where there is no higher type; (3) second-grade schools in towns where there are also first-grade schools. Lastly, he estimates that there are about 150 boys' and dual Municipal and County schools, educating approximately 25,000 boys, of whom only about 250 are boarders. All these 677 schools are under some form of public authority. The number of boys in schools under the control of companies or supported by religious communities is really incalculable until the Board produces the statistics. We may perhaps hazard 9,500 as an approximate figure, by taking the 13,907 boys in such schools in 1897 and deducting from them the 4,455 boys already included among the pupils of the "Conference" schools. As to the private schools, which are chiefly preparatory to the first-grade boarding schools, Mr. Bompas Smith informs us

that 393 are given in a list of the *Public Schools Year Book*. Giving each of these 30 boys as the lowest possible average, we get some 12,000 boys, a large percentage of whom may be said to be receiving an education, at any rate between the ages of eleven and fourteen, rather secondary than primary in character; if we content ourselves with assigning only half this number to Secondary Education proper, we shall have another 6,000 boys to add to our estimate.

In all, we have hitherto accounted for 122,000 boys, of whom 116,000 receive Secondary Instruction in public schools and 6,000 in private schools admittedly efficient. The 1897 Census gave 158,502 boys as in receipt of some type of Secondary Education, but if we allow for the increase of population, and if the generally accepted estimate, that at the present time private schools provide one-third of the Secondary teaching of boys, is approximately correct, then there will be altogether about 174,000 boys in Secondary Schools to-day. It may be useful to add that in October 1907, 68,878 boys were in schools receiving Board of Education grants. If we deduct from this number (1) some 5,400 boys who were then in 23 "Conference" schools that had "gone under the Board," and (2) the 25,000 boys in Municipal schools, we are left with 38,500 boys to distribute among the second-grade Endowed schools, which, we have seen, have a total boy-population of 50,000. From this we may perhaps deduce that the odd 11,500 boys are being educated in Grammar schools of the second grade which are either, like the Birmingham Grammar Schools with their 2,000 boys, too wealthy to need State support, or still too inefficient to merit it. We will now tabulate these figures:

	Boys.
(*a*) In First-grade Schools, chiefly Boarding . . .	18,000
(*b*) In First-grade Schools, chiefly Day	13,500
(*c*) In Second-grade Endowed Schools	50,000
(*d*) In Municipal and County Schools	25,000
(*e*) In Schools under the control of Companies or supported by religious bodies, not included in (*a*) .	9,500
	116,000
(*f*) In Private Preparatory Schools—the proportion receiving the earlier stages of First-grade Secondary instruction	6,000
(*g*) In other Private Schools, for boys and "mixed," of a quite uncertain character	52,000
Total	174,000

How Long these Boys Stay at School.—Let us next turn to consider the percentage of boys who really proceed to

the higher stages of a Secondary School course, who do more than "finish off" an elementary education by a year or two at a Grammar School, who really count when we institute comparisons with France and Germany, where State control and the public recognition of various leaving-certificates guarantee a really substantial secondary instruction, extending over a term of years, as the normal lot of every boy who enters a secondary school at all. The figures of the Board for 1906-7, the last that are complete, are sufficiently instructive. Out of the 63,712 boys in schools under central control,[1] 42,505 were taking an approved course of four years (roughly between 12 and 16), and we may estimate at 1,000 the boys who were of the same age but did not take the course. 18,214 boys were in forms below the approved course, and therefore receiving instruction rather preparatory than secondary, and only 1,993 were in forms above this course, that is, on the average, over 16 and under 19. There is even less room for encouragement when we turn to the differentiation of the boys who took the course. The Ordinary Course was taken by 30,132 boys, of whom 12,521 were in the first year of the course, 9,812 in the second, 5,248 in the third, and 2,551 in the fourth. Out of the 12,373 boys of the same age taking a Special Course, 4,011 were in the first year of such a course, 3,179 in the second, 3,377 in the third, and 1,806 in the fourth. This means that in the so-called Secondary Schools of this country, receiving State and sometimes local aid for giving secondary instruction, roughly only one thirty-second part of the boys are over 16,[2] or at any rate doing work proper to boys over 16; and, of the boys who are taking courses suitable to pupils between 12 and 16, the proportion of "stayers" drops to about one-fifth of those who begin in the one case, and to less than one-half in the other, before the last year of the course is reached. In other words, about 2 boys out of every 62 in our Secondary Schools under the Board are doing really advanced work, are entering upon that specialised application of a sound general equipment which it is of the very essence of secondary

[1] Of such schools there were in this year 767, of which 305 were for boys, and contained 62,712 pupils. To this figure we must, however, add at least half of the 2,031 pupils of both sexes who were not included among the grant-earning population, because, although of an age parallel to those taking an approved course, they received instruction outside that course. This gives us, say, 63,712 boys in schools under State regulation in 1906-7.

[2] The High Master of Manchester tells us that in his school the average age of boys beginning the course is rather over 13 than 12.

education to encourage and secure; while, of the remaining 60, 18 are doing merely preparatory work, 17 will leave when they have taken a year's general training, 13 after two years' "finishing," 8 will be allowed three years in which to learn something of the world's mysteries and achievements, while 4 will be lucky enough to complete an encyclopædic course of instruction, but will not in any case be permitted to stay even a year longer in order to reap the fruit of this preliminary training. We shall be left with our two solitary boys to proceed to the harvest, and, on the analogy of what has happened, one at least will be "taken" before it is half reaped. The tale of the dwindling numbers of the seven little pigs can alone vie in melancholy with this most dismal statement of fact. Even in 1897, 9·3 per cent. of the boys were over 16; and we thought we had done so much since then! It is true that this 3 per cent. of older boys in Board-regulated Secondary Schools is certainly much lower than the percentage in our older first-grade public schools, boarding and day schools alike. Still, even a school like the Manchester Grammar School had, in 1906-7, only 151 boys above the course out of a total of 874; and all who know the inside of the public boarding schools will admit that there is a very considerable leakage about the age of 16 or 17. It is impossible to be optimistic of any improvement, until a trenchant reform is somehow effected, in view of such disquieting figures as these.

Higher Elementary Schools To-day.—Since the difference between secondary and higher elementary education has thus proved hitherto to be one rather of name than nature, as far as the *instruction* of the overwhelming majority of our boys has gone, up to the time of writing, let us consider what provision is being made in Higher Elementary Schools to meet the admitted need for teaching that is advanced beyond the rudiments. It has been calculated that out of the 5,000,000 English youth of both sexes between the ages of 15 and 21, only 800,000 are receiving any measure of systematic training. In view of what we have seen this will not be surprising, nor will our tendency to pessimism be checked by contemplating the statistics for Higher Elementary Schools. By Act of Parliament, Elementary Education is limited, except with the consent of the Board of Education, to children who are not more than 16 at the end of the school year, and this limitation applies to the Higher type as well. Higher Elementary Schools are now of two types: the Old, giving a four years' course, of a predominantly scientific character, to children of the minimum age of 10; the New,

started in 1905, giving a three years' course instead of four, which is "to continue the general education of the scholars and provide them with special instruction bearing on their future occupation." In this type of school the minimum age is 12. Of the New type, there were in 1906-7 only 34 schools in England, of which 10 were for boys, 11 for girls, and 13 for both sexes; and of the Old type only 23, 10 for boys, 1 for girls, and 12 for both boys and girls. In all, 3,219 boys were educated in the New type, and 3,912 in the Old type of school. As to the fees, omitting small figures, 1,017 children paid nothing, 1,582 paid about 6*d.*, 560 under 3*d.*, and 75 over 9*d.*, a week; while, in view of the fact that assistant masters are still paid an average of £120 a year, non-resident, in Secondary Schools, it is interesting to note that of these Higher Elementary Schools, the New type pay their head teachers the average salary of £324, and their men assistants £160 a year; while the Old type is not far behind with averages of £316 and £158 a year respectively. Until we develop a proper kind of secondary school, which, besides giving a liberalising out-of-school education, secures an average school-life of at least four years beyond the age of 12, in order to impart an adequate and systematic instruction, we are playing dishonestly with words in distinguishing "primary" and "secondary," and wasting endowments and grants alike in encouraging the selfish and short-sighted proneness of parents to make use of a secondary school for a year or two, in order that their boy may "finish off" and have a "grammar school" education. If they were less snobbish, they could get an article quite good enough for their purpose at nothing or 9*d.* a week in an elementary school, with the knowledge that they were not sweating their masters thrown in as a bonus. If they would only do so, or else learn what a secondary education means, the way would be at length cleared for reform. We must for a long time aim at quality, not quantity, at giving 100 boys a thorough training rather than 1,000 a mere taste of knowledge which has not the time to grow into an acquired taste for knowing. It is calculated that out of the 52,643 children in Endowed Schools, 24,941 have previously attended public elementary schools: it seems likely that a very small minority of them, after changing their type of school, are given a secondary-school life long enough to admit of an education really other than elementary. It is no use insisting on 25 per cent. of free places in a secondary school unless the free scholars stay to profit by the advantages afforded them.

Varieties of Secondary Schools under Central Control.—To analyse briefly the schools now[1] under central control, we find that, in 1906-7, out of the 305 schools for boys, 199, with 28,458 boys, were situated within an Administrative County; 26, with 9,414 boys, in the County of London; and 80, with 24,840 boys, in County Boroughs. In 1897 there were 502 Endowed Schools for boys and 86 for girls. Ten years later 399 Endowed Schools for both sexes were under the Board of Education regulations; although it must be remembered that the term "endowed" here includes a number of schools that were previously known as proprietary. The exact distribution of the 676 schools for both sexes, educating 63,712 boys and 51,877 girls, is as follows:

(1) Public Schools, provided and maintained by a local authority	179
(2) Endowed Schools, conducted by a local authority as governors of a charitable fund	14
(3) Endowed Schools, of which the local authority is responsible for the finance, while distinct from the governing body	11
(4) Endowed Schools not included in (2), (3), or (5)	374
(5) Girls' Public Day Schools	33
(6) Roman Catholic Schools	47
(7) Other Schools	18

On May 15, 1907, Mr. McKenna said that the 600 Secondary Schools in England, recognised for grants by the Board in 1905–6, educated 104,938 scholars, of whom 56,000 came from public elementary schools, 28,000 were in schools under complete municipal control, and 29,000 paid no fees. Out of the 685 controlled schools in England and Wales during the same period, 4 were wholly free, in 28 the fee was less than £3, in 46 it was £3, while in 607 the fee was more than £3, and exceeded £13 in 77 out of these 607.

Estimates of Fees paid by Parents.—These figures, and the rough guess we made above at the number of boys receiving various kinds of secondary education, will enable us to hazard another, even rougher, guess, at the money spent by parents in this country on the school education of their sons. Out of

[1] As we go to press we learn from the *Report* for 1907-8, at last published, that, in 1907-8, 742 Secondary Schools were recognised for grants by the Board. Of these 245 were controlled by a local authority, 418 were Endowed Schools or schools of a similar type, 31 belonged to the Girls' Public Day School Trust, and 48 were Roman Catholic. Besides this there were 52 schools, recognised as efficient, not on the grant list, making 794 schools in all. In the grant schools there were, on October 1, 1907, 67,878 boys as compared with 62,712 on June 30 in the same year. In the other 52 schools there were 3,513 boys, or 71,391 all told. All these figures refer to England only.

the 18,000 boys in First-grade Schools that are chiefly boarding (*a*), we have seen that 16,000 are boarders. Since in these schools the tuition-fee varies between £10 and £40, and the boarding-fee between £50 and over £100, we shall not be over-estimating expenses if we make £25 the average fee for day boys, and £85 the average inclusive fee for boarders.[1] Deducting 10 per cent. from both classes to allow for scholarships, we get £45,000 as the amount spent by parents on day boys, and £1,232,500 as that spent on boarders. In the First-grade Schools that are chiefly day (*b*), we have 12,000 day boys and 1,500 boarders. Allotting £15 as the cost of a day boy and £65 as the cost of a boarder, and again deducting 10 per cent. for scholarships, we may reckon that the 10,800 day boys who pay fees cost £162,000, and the corresponding 1,350 boarders £87,750. Next, as to the Second-grade Endowed Schools (*c*), with 43,250 day boys and 6,750 boarders, we shall perhaps guess least wrongly if we put the tuition-fee of the 50,000 boys at £8 a year, and allow 15 per cent. free places. This alone amounts to £340,000 paid in fees, and if we charge 6,000 of the 6,750 boarders (thus allowing for scholarships) a minimum boarding-fee of £40 a year, we get another £240,000. In Municipal and County Schools (*d*), we may perhaps be right in charging an average fee of £5, and allowing for 25 per cent. free places. Since there are 25,000 boys in all, the tuition-fees paid by parents will come to £93,750, and if we make the 250 boarders pay a boarding-fee of £30, we may add another £7,500. As for Companies' and Denominational Schools (*e*), since a majority are certainly boarding schools, we cannot well charge a smaller average fee than £40. Again deducting 10 per cent. for scholars among the 9,500 boys, we get a total of £427,500 as the cost to parents of this type of education. Regarding the 6,000 boys in Preparatory Schools (*f*), we shall be modest if we estimate £100 as the average cost per boy in boarding schools and £25 in day schools. Since at least five-sixths will be boarders, we may put the combined total cost at £525,000. Lastly, we get the nondescript Private Schools (*g*). Remembering the numberless private boarding schools at the seaside, we may safely assign 17,000, a third of the estimated 52,000, to this class. Let us make them pay £40 a year, or £680,000 in all, and then, lest we have been extravagant, let us send the remaining 34,000 to those "academies" which still survive on

[1] By "inclusive fee" we mean the fee for board and tuition. Nothing is allowed in this estimate for the many "extras," which together with books, clothes, travelling expenses and sundries, generally raise a nominal yearly cost of £85 for educating a boy, to a real cost of £120 or £130.

a yearly fee of £3. This gives our final figure, £102,000. Now we will add up:

FEES PAID BY PARENTS FOR EDUCATION OF BOYS

(*a*)	In First-grade Schools, chiefly Boarding	£1,277,500
(*b*)	In First-grade Schools, chiefly Day	249,750
(*c*)	In Second-grade Endowed Schools	580,000
(*d*)	In Municipal and County Schools	101,250
(*e*)	In Companies' and Denominational Schools	427,500
(*f*)	In Preparatory Schools	525,000
(*g*)	In nondescript Private Schools, Day and Boarding	782,000
	Total	£3,943,000

This is a very inside estimate, since Mr. Tarver[1] considers that the 8,300 boys who, in 1902, were in 21 of those boarding schools which are most exclusively public, cost their parents, on an average, £120 a year each, or, in round figures, £1,000,000; and he would also assess the preparatory boarding-fee at £120 rather than £100. But we will content ourselves with £3,943,000 as the amount of the annual bill for parents alone. Let us now consider the contributions of the various public exchequers to the same cause of Secondary Education, leaving unguessed (indeed unguessable) the amount annually contributed by the assistant masters of unendowed public and proprietary schools towards the improvement of the school plant.

Endowments.—First, let us take endowments. In England, more than ten years ago, the endowments applicable to secondary education amounted to £735,000 annually, exclusive of the sites and buildings. By the abolition of fees in elementary schools, another £100,000 of endowments that were assigned to elementary education was set free for other purposes. In spite of the recommendation of the Commission that this sum should be applied to Secondary Education, it would appear that it is generally assigned by local authorities either to the reduction of rates or to the training of primary teachers. It is further to be noticed that the £735,000 of secondary endowments is very unequally distributed, Lancashire, with a population of 4,000,000, owning endowments worth £38,000 a year; the West Riding of Yorkshire, with 2,500,000 people, taking £68,000; while in Norfolk the population is 450,000 and the endowments £12,780; and Devonshire, with a population of 631,000, has endowments to the value of £17,430. The result is, that in some places fees are necessarily higher than in others, unless the local authority gives assistance by raising a higher rate than the richer districts.

[1] In *The Nation's Need*, edited by Spenser Wilkinson (Constable), p. 182.

Next, the "whiskey money," transferred from the Exchequer to the local authorities, amounted in 1905-6 to £804,093, which must be entirely devoted to higher instruction. It will, perhaps, be advisable to put down the receipts and expenditure of the local authorities in England in 1905-6, for some hidden reason the latest returns issued by the Board.

Receipts and Expenditure by Local Authorities in England.—Out of 1,095 such authorities, 518 incurred expenditure under Part II. of the Education Act of 1902, and 429 raised a rate.

RECEIPTS	£	s.	d.
By money raised by rates	1,254,179	15	8
„ amount transferred from the Exchequer Contribution Fund	804,093	6	11
„ Grants from the Board of Education and County Councils—			
(*a*) For Secondary Schools and Education of Pupil-teachers	266,655	3	0
(*b*) For Evening and Technical Schools	383,158	3	0
(*c*) For the Training of Teachers other than Pupil-teachers	23,696	3	0
(*d*) Grants from County Councils	104,234	18	7
„ other receipts (fees?)	464,478	16	7
Total Receipts	£3,300,496	6	9

EXPENDITURE	£	s.	d.
To Secondary Schools—			
(*a*) Maintained by the Council	367,791	10	11
(*b*) Maintained by other local authorities, but aided by the Council	29,827	17	7
(*c*) Maintained by other bodies or persons, but aided by the Council	198,066	16	5
	595,686	4	11
To Pupil-Teachers' Centres, not in Secondary Schools	222,946	19	0
„ Schools or Institutions for Evening Teaching	1,165,278	18	8
„ Technical Schools and Institutions for Day Teaching	255,991	11	5
„ Exhibitions (scholarships, bursaries, etc.)	356,430	4	7
„ Training of Teachers other than Pupil-Teachers	70,053	7	4
„ Grants to other Local Authorities	64,957	10	10
„ Salaries and Pensions of Officers other than Teachers	115,061	12	5
„ Legal Expenses	722	19	9
„ Other Expenses of Administration	61,953	8	10
In Respect of Loans	144,484	13	0
Other Expenses	87,681	1	5
Total Expenditure	£3,141,248	12	2

Comparison of Grants to Secondary and other Forms of Higher Instruction.—The absolute necessity for central supervision is abundantly proved by the most cursory consideration of these figures. Leaving on one side the fact that out of the £266,655 granted by the Board to local authorities under heading (*a*) above, an enormous amount (seventeen-fortieths on the analogy of the relative grants of the Board during this year to the whole of England and Wales) went to the training of pupil-teachers, of whom only a minority were in secondary school centres, and merely contrasting this total of £266,655 assigned by the State for the furtherance of some form of secondary training with the £383,158 it allotted to evening and technical instruction, the disproportion in these respective amounts is small compared with the disparity between the £595,648 (including grants for educating pupil-teachers) apportioned by the local authorities to secondary schools and the £1,421,269 devoted to technical and evening schools and institutions. Since the proportion of the £595,648 devoted to pupil-teachers is not published, we must compare the relation between £266,732 and £383,158 with the relation between £595,648 and £1,421,269. Giving the benefit of a rough calculation to technical and evening schools, we find that in 1905-6 the Government considered the relative need of secondary, as opposed to technical and evening, teaching to be 13 : 19, while local authorities subsidised the two branches of education in the proportion of 3 : 7. The result has been that an increased grant from the central authority has been necessary, not merely to relieve the financial difficulties under which nearly all secondary schools are struggling, but in order to emphasise the importance, very justly recognised by the Board, of a preliminary liberal training as the necessary basis for technical study.

Grants from the Board: their Increase.—This grant, amounting for England to about £200,000,[1] was voted by Parliament in 1906; but, since difficulties arose as to its application, it was not spent. It was voted again in 1907, and has since been partly applied, as we have seen, to increasing the grant to £5 for all pupils between 12 and 18 in Secondary Schools which fulfil certain conditions. It will

[1] The sum for England and Wales is £250,000. Of this one-twelfth (£21,000) goes to Welsh Intermediate Education, £5,000 is allotted to the training of *secondary* school teachers, and £21,000 is assigned to travelling expenses in connection with pupil-teachers and bursars. This leaves a clear £203,000 for English Secondary Schools and the training of pupil-teachers attached to them.

be of interest to compare the increase of the grants made by the Board of Education to Secondary Schools in England *and Wales* (apart from contributions to local science and art scholarships) during the last five years. We take the figures from the Estimates for each year.

	1903-4.	1904-5.	1905-6.	1906-7.
	£	£	£	£
Estimates .	200,000 (approx.)	216,500	242,500	339,500
Actual Grants .	206,927	217,748	239,640	254,237

	1907-8.	1908-9.	1909-10.
	£	£	£
Estimates .	647,000	767,700	791,250
Actual Grants .	342,584	(not yet known)	

Pupil-Teachers in Secondary Schools: Relative Amounts of Grants to Secondary Schools and Instruction of Pupil-Teachers.—As to the partial education of pupil-teachers in Secondary Schools, which has been encouraged during the last few years, we find that in England in 1906-7, 356 out of the 676 schools on the grant list of the Board were centres for such instruction, and educated 2,265 boys and 6,541 girls (roughly a half and a third respectively of the whole number) who were destined for elementary teaching. From 1907-8, by a perverse practice, the amount to be spent on Secondary Schools, apart from grants for scholarships, is lumped together with the sum allotted to the instruction of pupil-teachers in the annual Estimates, and it is therefore impossible to determine the amount assigned to Secondary Education proper. It will perhaps be useful to give the figures of the actual expenditure up to date on the two, quite distinct, objects. For it is to be remembered that the figures below represent the grant for the instruction of teachers, whether educated in secondary-school centres or not, and that in any case such grants benefit elementary, not secondary, education.

ACTUAL EXPENDITURE

	1903-4.	1904-5.	1905-6.	1906-7.	1907-8.
	£	£	£	£	£
On Secondary Education .	206,927	217,748	239,640	254,237	342,584
On Instruction of Pupil-Teachers .	57,829	36,251	175,688	181,091	294,809

Since the last proportion is, roughly, £34 for secondary education to every £29 spent on pupil-teachers, we may presume that out of the £791,250 estimated for 1909-10 only £427,000 will go to secondary education, the remaining £351,000 being

assigned to pupil-teachers' training. Deducting the usual one-twelfth for Wales, this leaves a probable £391,500 as next year's expenditure on English Secondary Schools.

Some Welsh Statistics Compared.—With regard to Wales, since, for purposes of comparison, a few additional figures may perhaps be excused, there were in Welsh Intermediate (Secondary) Schools, in 1905-6, 5,641 boys and 5,013 girls, and grants were paid on 7,067 of the two sexes combined. The Board of Education grant for Secondary Education, including the instruction of pupil-teachers, was £17,456, while the separate Treasury grant (which adds a ½*d.* to the ½*d.* rate levied by the Councils) was £23,300. Rates for Higher Education, including Secondary, produced £86,513, while the "whiskey money" came to £39,011. In all, including the Board grants for education other than secondary and other receipts, such as fees, which we need not specify, the total receipts amounted to £217,682, out of which £110,462 was spent on Secondary Schools; £11,234 on other pupil-teachers' centres; £2,525 on day-teaching in Technical Schools and Institutes; and £35,509 on evening-teaching in technical institutions. The startling contrast between the proportion of money allotted in Wales to secondary, as opposed to technical, instruction, namely 3 : 1, whereas in England we have seen that our local authorities make it 3 : 7, affords much ground for thought. The explanation that Wales contains few large towns is insufficient to account for a partition of subsidies so converse to our own; the fact is that the Welsh, who were before us in establishing a national system of secondary schools, are also before us in seeing that, now and for a long time to come, a liberal, rather than a specialised, education is the pressing need.

Aggregate Expenditure on Higher Education.—Putting now England and Wales together, in 1905-6 both countries received for Higher Education (including secondary schools, technical schools and institutes, scholarships, the training of elementary teachers and pupil-teachers, and evening classes) a sum of £3,518,178 from central and local sources, and spent £3,355,433 on these various objects. In the next year, 1906-7, we find the Exchequer giving to Elementary Education in the two countries £11,022,600, and £10,300,674 was raised for the same purpose from local sources, including endowments and fees; while, for Higher Education, £3,040,964 was granted by the Exchequer, £1,558,488 came from local sources, and £1,484,476 was derived from fees and endowments. Mr. McKenna, in a statement made on June 8, 1907 said that Wales was then (before the extra grant of £21,000

came in force) receiving £48,000 in all as a grant for Secondary Instruction, this amount being two-thirds of the total Exchequer grant to all Welsh Higher Education. The proportion is somewhat striking. But let us have done with statistics by turning to the Estimates for Education for the years ending 1909 and 1910 in England and Wales. We will omit the figures outside the sphere of our present interest.

THE BOARD'S LATEST ESTIMATE

	1908-9.	1909-10.
Board of Education.	£	£
For Administration	194,543	204,693
„ Inspection and Examination. .	248,833	244,180
Grants for Elementary Schools (*including £115,275 for pensions and gratuities to teachers*) . . .	11,195,375	11,162,405
Grants for the Training of Teachers .	500,000	555,000
Grants towards Expenditure of Secondary Schools and the instruction of pupil-teachers	767,700	791,250
Contribution to Local Science and Art Scholarships held in Secondary Schools	35,000	550
	=£802,700	=£791,800
Technical and other aided Schools and Classes, scholarships, etc. . .	£517,670	£537,505
Out of a total Grant of { to England and Wales	£13,587,806	£13,648,792
{ to United Kingdom .	£17,685,886	£17,911,143
Treasury Grant in aid of Local rates for Welsh Intermediate Education . .	£25,800	£26,400
Board of Agriculture Estimate for Agricultural and Dairy Education . . .	£12,300	£12,300

Advance and Uncertainty.—The change is great when we remember that Elementary Education in 1871 only received, all told, a Government Grant of £927,524, and that in 1900, apart from Endowments, and Science and Art Grants from South Kensington, Secondary Education proper was in no way either supervised or supported by the State, and only indirectly and to a small extent by the local authorities. We have walked far in the last eight years, but the correct route is as yet hardly known or conjectured, with the result that we have not only already followed several false tracks, but are still in great danger of missing the right turning.

Estimate of Present Cost of Secondary Education in England.—Deducting from the £802,700 (made possible by

the extra grant of £250,000) the £47,000 of this extra grant devoted to purposes other than Secondary Schools in England, together with, say, a further sum of £45,000 for Wales [1] and roughly £325,000 for the education of English pupil-teachers,[2] we are left with £385,700 as the amount being spent on English Secondary Education by the central authority in the year 1908-9. If we now allow the latest return for expenditure by the local authorities on Secondary Schools—namely, £595,686 in 1905-6—to predict a minimum of £600,000 to-day, and then add the amount which we hazarded was spent by parents in fees, we get the following result:

ANNUAL COST OF SECONDARY EDUCATION IN ENGLAND TO-DAY

	£
Contribution to Secondary Schools by Central Authority (*excluding* Grant to Pupil-Teachers' training)	385,700
Contribution to Secondary Schools by Local Authorities (*including* Grant for Pupil-Teachers trained in Secondary Schools)	600,000
Contributions to Secondary Schools by Parents' payment of fees, *for boys only*	3,943,000
Total	£4,928,700
Annual Value of Endowments (in 1897)	735,000
Grand Total	£5,663,700

This means, if our guesses are not too incorrect (and we solicit more accurate information) that, leaving unreckoned the probable £3,000,000 spent in parents' fees for educating girls, and apart from the expense of building incurred by private persons and all governing bodies except local authorities, who presumably include the outlay on the schools they build in the above estimate, our annual expenditure upon Secondary Education in England alone is over £5,500,000. Whether we spend this money wisely, it will be the purpose of this book to enable the reader to decide. We have at least been able to get some rough idea of how the higher schools in this country have grown up, and as far as figures help us, of their character and cost to-day. Later sections of this volume will treat of these schools from an inside standpoint, distinguishing their species, describing their activities in work and play, sometimes venturing to suggest a reform. The soundness of such suggestions will certainly be best judged by the reader in the light of the statements on the conditions of Secondary Education in France, Germany, and America, contained in the following chapters.

[1] Bringing Wales up to her normal share of one-twelfth.

[2] An amount based on the analogy of past years.

Prof. Sadler's Comparison of Essex with Germany and America as to Numbers attending Secondary Schools.—Happily, English public opinion has at last realised the effect in Germany and America of organised secondary instruction upon success in trade and industry. The leeway we need to make up can most readily be estimated by quoting the figures given by Prof. Sadler in his Report on Secondary and Higher Education in Essex (pp. 7-8). Out of the English counties he had surveyed Essex stood, in 1905, the highest in respect of the number of pupils in all secondary schools, public and private—namely 6·11 per 1,000 boys and 11·87 boys and girls. In Prussia, in 1900, 5·44 boys attended public Higher Schools, but none of these boys were under nine, and all the schools were efficiently organised and admirably staffed. In America, 9·35 per 1,000 of the population attend Secondary Schools, all pupils being over thirteen years of age, while the Essex porportion for pupils of a similar age was 4·9 per 1,000. In some American States, the proportion is even more to our disadvantage, Maine having 16·51 per 1000, of its population in Secondary Schools, agricultural Wisconsin 10·5, Connecticut 12·13. But, in view of the appalling statistics we have quoted above, all will agree that our ideal, for the time being at least, must rather be Germany than America, the levelling-up of the standard of existing schools rather than the spread of new institutions, to give a thorough education to the boys we have rather than a pretentious smattering to twice their number.

Our Present Need: Improved Quality rather than Quantity.—On this subject Mr. E. S. Davies, in his Report on Higher Education in Kent (p. 10), speaks words of infinite wisdom, when he says: "The establishment of a large number of low-grade Secondary Schools would probably be the most disastrous step that any authority could take. . . . It would be a fatal policy to lower the level of the education given merely in order to catch pupils. The wiser plan is to keep the best system of school training before the eyes of the people, who will assuredly come sooner or later to appreciate it."

Secondary Education in Wales.—We had intended, but lack of space forbids, rapidly to trace the development of Secondary Education in other parts of the United Kingdom:[1] to show how Wales, which in 1847 was discovered by an Inquiry Commission to be practically without any provision

[1] What follows is, and only pretends to be, a bare summary for the hardy reader, in order to round off the subject. We have not the space to give even these few facts the adumbration of a literary expression

for secondary instruction, before 1870 revived seven Grammar Schools and founded Llandovery College, although as late as 1865-6 the Taunton Commissioners found in all the country only 28 Endowed Secondary Schools for boys (16 classical schools with 706 scholars, 8 semi-classical with 255 scholars, and 4 non-classical with 169 scholars), while the net annual income from endowments was only £7,251, of which Monmouth took £3,000. It would not have been altogether uninstructive to recount the growth of the national movement which led to the creation of a Welsh University and then secured, by the Welsh Intermediate Education Act of 1889, a comprehensive system of secondary schools to prepare the candidates for that University, the management of this system being entrusted to Joint Committees in each county, and its finances being based upon the "Whiskey money" and a special Treasury grant (amounting to £26,400 in the Estimates for 1909-10) which doubles the ½*d.* county rate. We should have shown how the same national spirit in 1892 contrived to establish a central educational authority of its own in the shape of a Central Welsh Board, which should inspect and examine Welsh Schools, under the supreme control of the Board of Education, and how, in 1907, a separate Welsh Department was made in Whitehall. In 1906-7 there were 6,397 boys and 5,692 girls in the 92 Welsh Intermediate Schools;[1] but the tendency to leave very early was as pronounced as in England, only 307 boys being above the 12-16 course. The great danger in Wales is the multiplication of small low-grade schools, and the aiming at extension, rather than intension, of secondary teaching.

In Scotland.—The history of the subject in Scotland would have been of unique interest. We should have found a sharp contrast to England in the wide spread of humanism North of the Tweed ever since the Reformation, due to the promulgation by the Church Assembly, in 1560, of the decree that every parish kirk should have a school (the support of which was secured through the heritors, or landowners, being taxed by the Statute of 1696), and also to the strong democratic tendency which sent laird's son and poor crofter's boy to the same dominie's school. This school

[1] In the *Report* for 1907-8 we find that in this year the number of Welsh Secondary Schools recognised for grants by the Board of Education was 104, of which 92 were Intermediate, and, of the remaining 12, 2 were administered under the Endowed Schools Act, while 8 were Municipal, with a more practical bias, a shortened course, and a greater freedom from examination test than the Intermediate; these last schools, again, are more directly under the local authority and are inspected by the Board of Education, not the Central Welsh Board.

was ruled by no barren code, but the brighter scholars were taught Latin and sent on to the inexpensive Universities, which, in their turn, bridged over the gulf between village school and college by taking boys, even as late as 1830, as young as 12 or 14. We could, with equal pleasure and profit, have spoken of the Burgh schools, governed by the burgh authorities, and the Academies, founded originally with the view of giving a more commercial instruction, but afterwards, as a rule, amalgamated with the Burgh, or Latin, schools, and becoming a more liberal type of Grammar school. Any one who desires a vivid and delightful picture of these competent, democratic Academies, in which the blending of the middle and poorer classes was complete, should turn to Mr. Fearon's Report for the Taunton Commission. He writes (vol. vi., p. 52) of the "keen thoughtful faces turned towards the master, watching his every look and gesture in the hope of winning a place in the class, and having good news to bring home to their parents at tea-time. The *dux* seated at the head of the class, wearing perhaps a medal; the object of envy and yet of pride to all his fellows; fully conscious both of the glory and insecurity of his position; and taught, by the experience of many falls, the danger of relaxing his efforts for one moment. In front of this eager animated throng stands the master, gaunt, muscular, and time-worn, poorly clad, and plain in speech and manner, but with the dignity of a ruler in his gestures and the fire of an enthusiast in his eye. . . . The whole scene is one of vigorous action and masterly force, forming the greatest possible contrast with the monotonous, unmethodical, ill-seconded working of the English teacher." Many parents would doubtless have been gratified by an account of the great latitude often allowed them in fixing their boy's curriculum, through the system of separate payment for different subjects, the choice of which was optional, but would have been surprised at the unanimous support by Scottish parents of subjects, like Latin and mathematics, which have grit in them. In 1872, Academies and Burgh Schools alike were transferred by the Education Act from the Town Councils, which had hitherto had the chief voice in their control, to School Boards elected *ad hoc*, and thereby, thirty years earlier than in England, the unity of Scottish education was secured by putting elementary and secondary instruction under the same jurisdiction, a jurisdiction that still survives in its original form. By this Act the School Boards were to provide for the maintenance of the building, while the masters were paid from fees which, until 1892, they independently fixed for their own schools every

three years. In 1885, a separate Scottish Education Department was created, to inspect public and endowed Higher Schools; and to this inspection was soon added the inestimable boon of a Government examination for a State leaving-certificate, which did away with the multiplicity of examinations and gave a definite, common standard by which the public could gauge the value of a boy's acquirements. By 1902, 18,212 candidates sat for this certificate, coming from 441 schools, of which 353 were under State control. Finally, in 1893, Secondary Education Committees were set up in each county and in six large towns, to distribute the £60,000 of "Whiskey money" and make provision for secondary education: they administered, in 1900, one-fifth of the available funds, and have done much to prevent smaller Boards from starving secondary education. In the Estimates for 1909-10 a sum of £166,500 is assigned to Continuation Classes and Secondary Schools in Scotland, and it is worth noting that, by the Education (Scotland) Act of 1908, School Boards are bound to provide continued instruction in crafts and industries, English or Gaelic, and the laws of health for adolescents over fourteen, and to afford them opportunity for suitable physical training.

In Ireland.—Lastly, it is perhaps as well to forego the details of the lamentable history of Secondary Education in Ireland. In 1858, the Kildare Commission reported that there were only 52 endowed grammar schools with an annual income of £14,954, no less than 91 towns being without any such endowed school; and, of the six Diocesan Free Schools which they found educating 196 pupils in a satisfactory way, only three survived in 1880. The Rosse Commission of 1878 found secondary schools quite out of touch with modern requirements; out of every 100,000 persons in Scotland, 371 were then receiving education in endowed intermediate schools, whereas in Ireland the numbers were 199 Protestants and only 2 Catholics. When the Church of Ireland was disestablished, £32,000 was set apart for Irish Intermediate Education, being granted on the antiquated system of payment by results of examination by a special Board. In 1885, by the Educational Endowments (Ireland) Act, Commissioners were appointed to draft schemes, and on their recommendation the Board of Commissioners of National Education in Ireland was established in 1891, consisting of twenty Commissioners, ten appointed by the Lord-Lieutenant, of whom five are Protestants and five Catholics, and ten elected by the ten new local Boards of Education, set up at the same time, to administer schools within the different Ulster areas of

Armagh, Tyrone, Fermanagh, Cavan, and Donegal. In each of these five districts there are two Boards, a Catholic and a Protestant, which establish or maintain schools, administer endowments, and promote intermediate instruction. In 1861 there were 729 "Superior Schools" in Ireland, with 21,674 pupils; in 1901 the schools were 490 and the pupils 35,306. The private secondary schools fell in the same period from 371 with 10,383 pupils, to 210 with 8,051 pupils, while many Irish boys of the upper classes are educated out of Ireland. By the extension of the "Whiskey money" grant to Ireland, £56,760 was, by 1901, devoted by the Intermediate Education Board to inspecting schools, and upon examination of 8,100 pupils from 255 centres, giving prizes, exhibitions, and grants, which, since 1902, are made on a triennial average, and awarded on a sliding scale according to the quantity of candidates who pass. Irish Intermediate Education receives this money apart from the Science and Art grants made by the Department of Agriculture and Technical Instruction, and the help afforded by the Commissioners of National Education. There is as yet, however, no real co-ordination of Government control in Irish education corresponding to the centralised system established in England by the recent Board of Education Act, with the exception of a small Consultative Committee of Education, consisting of the Vice-President of the Department of Agriculture and Technical Instruction, and one representative each of the two Boards advisory to the Department on these subjects, of the Commissioners of National Education, and of the Intermediate Education Board. Much has been done in Ireland for secondary schools during the last few years; but the system of payment by result, though to some extent explained by religious discord, is so disastrous to real education, through its encouragement of cramming and competition, that some alternative must be devised for it with all possible speed.

[Books especially consulted:—*Handbuch der Erziehungs-und-Unterrichtslehre für höhere Schulen*, edited by Baumeister, Beck, Munich: article on Great Britain by Dr. Breul. *Die Entwicklung der höheren Knabenschulen in England*, by Dr. Ph. Aronstein, Eltwert, Marburg, 1897. *English Schools at the Reformation*, by Dr. Leach. *Educational Systems*, by Graham Balfour, Oxford, 1903. Various Bluebooks and Official Reports.]

CHAPTER II

SECONDARY EDUCATION IN FRANCE

WHEN we turn to France, we find a development of Secondary Education widely different from our own, an elaborate State organisation and control, great efficiency of teaching, much neglect of all-round education, an excess of system, a freedom from incompetence, a keen public interest in, and criticism of, even specialistic educational problems, a logical estimate of loss and gain, a tendency to routine, an ardent desire for reform. In order to understand the present position of secondary schools, we must unavoidably glance at their history—a history which, starting from the same beginnings, has for centuries offered so startling and instructive a contrast with that of our own institutions.

History.—In France, as in England (indeed, throughout civilised Europe), education was long under the tutelage of the Church. The great French schools from the fourth to the twelfth century are monastery schools, most of them for novices, with a later provision for day boys not destined for orders, some for sons of well-born laymen only. With the foundation of the School or University of Paris, the prototype of Oxford, the aspect changes. Boys, youths, men flocked from every side to hear the Schoolmen applying, not always reverently, their conception of Aristotelian philosophy to the problems of theology and life. They were divided into four nations, France, Picardy, Normandy, and England, the last, after the Edwardian hostilities, giving place to the nation of Germany. The combined nations, represented by their proctors, formed the Faculty of Arts, and elected the Rector of the University. Their studies were divided into the *trivium* and *quadrivium*: the former comprising the consecutive stages of grammar, rhetoric (poetry, history, composition), dialectic (philosophy); the *quadrivium* embracing arithmetic, geometry, astronomy, music. By strange conservatism the teaching, nay, the terms, in the main survive in French schools to-day: the forms of the middle school come

under the division of "Grammar," the top class is "Rhetoric," followed by "Philosophy" or "Mathematics." As at Oxford, the colleges were originally hostels, where the younger students might live undisturbed by the wranglings, not always scholastic, of the motley crowds that took even things of the mind seriously, as problems often to be settled with blows. Most of the colleges were founded by Churchmen, with scholarships for the poor; they date from the fourteenth century: under different names many of them survive to-day, the Collège d'Harcourt being the Lycée St. Louis, the Collège de Navarre the Lycée Henri IV. But, whereas in England the colleges have become boarding-houses for *men* studying at the University, in France they have remained true to their original design of providing hostels for *boys*, who complete in them the Arts course, and from them take the Bachelor's degree—were, in fact, and are, secondary schools, and furnished a model for other secondary schools throughout the country. For not only Paris, but Toulouse, Montpellier, Orleans, Angers, were University towns in mediæval France, and colleges for boys were grouped around them. The close connection between school and university was maintained, and the lethargy which gradually came over the Universities, and which was not, as in England and Germany, dispelled by the Renaissance, was shared to the full by their schools. Hence, when the Jesuits started Colleges in 1565, their success was rapid. In a hundred years they had eighty-two schools in Paris alone, the most famous being the Collège de Clermont, the present Lycée Louis le Grand, a school which enjoys the unique distinction of having survived the Revolution without suspension, and the deeper glory of having on its student-roll so many of the greatest names of France.

Of the Jesuit schools there is no space to speak. Their popularity was due to their unrivalled teaching, to the devotion of their masters, the greater humanity of their discipline, and the social advantages they offered by the advancement which the Society secured for its old pupils in after life. The Jesuits excelled in teaching the classics, but they taught them formally, as lessons in style, cultivating the manner, and neglecting, often wilfully excluding, the matter, as tending to corruption. Their discipline was mild, but it demoralised through excessive encouragement of rivalry, "Roman" camp being pitted against "Carthaginian," boy against boy, personal or party glory being made the only stimulus to knowledge. The greatest advance in French education in the polished, artificial days of Louis XIV. was made neither by the University nor the Jesuits, but by Port Royal, whose *Petites Écoles*

were equally inspired by a passionate care for the individual and his upbringing in a truly Christian gentleness of spirit, and by an educational ideal singularly in advance of their age —the leading of boys to the unknown through the known, involving translation into the mother-tongue (elsewhere a heresy) and a systematic study of French. Just as Pascal, by the influence of his style, made French, as Pater says, "what it has ever since remained, a pattern of absolutely unencumbered expressiveness," so Port Royal founded that study of the national language and literature which is, perhaps, the most useful lesson that France can teach us to-day. Unfortunately, the Port-Royalists, who educated Racine, confined their schools to a very few boys, and schools and saints alike were soon dispersed by the suppression of the Jansenist community.

Other orders, the Benedictines and the Oratorians, followed the Jesuit lead, and did something to fill the gap when the Society was dissolved in 1764—something, but not enough, for the gap was immense. The University schools were impoverished by bad financial management, and their subsidies had sunk, after the loss of revenue derived from the Post Office and the *Messageries*, to 150,000 fr. per annum: nor, in spite of individual efforts at reform, did their discipline lose its severity, or their teaching its lifelessness. Then came the Revolution, which suppressed all the public schools and confiscated their property, replacing them by a scheme for providing a secondary school for every 4,000 inhabitants, which never resulted in more than ninety-one such schools; and replacing the University by the establishment of a Normal School, the Polytechnic, and various *Écoles Centrales*, which are still in full activity. The real reorganisation of French Secondary Education, on a basis which has remained practically unaltered for a century, is due to the administrative genius of Napoleon, applied between 1802 and 1808. The four great Paris schools were adopted and renamed, and before 1813 there had been started thirty-two additional lycées and 250 collèges, a lower type of secondary school. All these schools were made part of a single system, embracing primary, secondary, and superior instruction, and called the University of France. At its head was the Grand Master, exercising, through twenty-seven *académies*, or University centres, jurisdiction over every branch of education. The same curriculum was made binding throughout the secondary schools, while it was considerably broadened in character; of the 14,492 boys in the lycées in 1813, 3,500 were scholars, educated at the expense of the State, and generally the sons of citizens who had deserved well of their country; the

discipline was made military and the school was modelled on the barracks, the hours being signalled by drum, and the boys being taught automatic obedience, the best training, it was thought, for future soldiers. At the same time the recognition and aid previously given to 350 private schools was taken away and the University left with the monopoly of all public instruction. In its main lines the system of Napoleon has survived, for good and evil, until to-day; and perhaps such survival, amid many political convulsions, is the best proof of its general excellence. With the various minor changes that have taken place during the last hundred years we cannot here deal. The most important developments were the increased defrayal by the State of the teachers' salaries at the cost of greatly diminishing the number of scholarships; the inclusion, in 1824, of the University as a State department, responsible through its Minister to Parliament, while remaining a *personne civile* in order to attract endowments; the reduction, some sixty years ago, of the twenty-seven académies to seventeen, of which fifteen are now University centres; the abolition in 1850 of the teaching monopoly by a law which allows private persons and corporations, under proper conditions, to give instruction; and the gradual increase in the number of schools under both State and private management. Primary instruction received a much-needed stimulus as a result of the war of 1870; and during the last thirty years there has been a wonderful revival of the Universities. The various Faculties, crushed out by the Revolution in favour of the Central Schools, had been gradually restored. In 1823 the Faculty of Medicine was reorganised, and in 1840 the Faculties of Law, Letters, and Science, though in 1876 there were practically no "internal" students in the last two branches, the home of which, in Paris, is the Sorbonne. Between 1877 and 1900 the number of Sorbonne students rose from 6 to 1,637, and that of the professors from 11 to 52, and in the same year, 1900, there were 277 professors and 13,771 students in Paris alone. To-day, fifteen of the seventeen administrative académies are governed from University towns, and in all attract over 30,000 resident students. The result has been an appreciable improvement in the already very adequate equipment of teachers in the public schools. With the recent reforms in these schools we shall have an opportunity of dealing later.

Machinery of State Control.—Let us now consider more closely the system by which the French, a century before we took a step in the same direction, secured a single, general control over the various grades of education, with all the

enormous advantages that such a control, if properly limited, implies. The machinery has undergone some readjustment, but the spirit has remained constant; and this spirit may perhaps be summed up as a sense of national responsibility for the education, in various degrees, of all citizens, involving supervision of the way in which, whether by State officials or private individuals, this education is conducted and the need for it supplied; and, besides this supervision, necessitating the establishment under State direction of schools and institutions, which, if they do not monopolise instruction, shall at least set a standard to, and act as a model for, all purveyors of an article so vitally important. At the head of the hierarchy is the Minister of Public Instruction, presiding over Superior, Secondary, and Primary teaching alike. Each of these branches is under the immediate control of a Director, responsible only to the Minister and proposing to him the reforms which he considers necessary. Taking account only of the Direction of Secondary Education, we find that it is divided, under two chief clerks, into departments dealing, one with instruction and scholarships, the other with the *personnel*.

Académies.—Beside this supreme central office, there are, we have seen, seventeen académies, or subordinate centres of administration, nearly all of them with a University town for their chief seat and with a jurisdiction extending over several departments. These académies are Paris, Aix-Marseille, Besançon, Bordeaux, Caen, Chambéry, Clermont, Dijon, Grenoble, Lille, Lyon, Montpellier, Nancy, Poitiers, Rennes, Toulouse, and Alger.[1] Each Academy is under a Rector, appointed by the Minister and acting as his representative. He is aided by one or more[2] Academy Inspectors, who are, however, as far as primary instruction is concerned, only under his control as regards the Normal Schools, being responsible in all other respects to the Prefects of each department, within whose province elementary education falls. Together the Rector and Academy Inspectors superintend the superior and secondary teaching of their district, visiting schools, receiving reports from headmasters and submitting a monthly report to the Minister, appointing the lower grades of masters, and arranging the promotion lists of the higher grades. All business must go through the Headmaster, and hence through the Rector to headquarters, if an appeal to headquarters is desired. The *voie hiérarchique* is recognised in France as necessary, in order that fuller information may

[1] Of these, Chambéry and Alger alone are not full Universities; Algiers has, however, already Faculties of Law, Medicine, and Pharmacy.

[2] In Paris eight, in Lille two, generally one.

be gathered *en route* and that a question may be approached from every side. Each Academy has its council, meeting twice a year, under the chairmanship of the Rector, and being composed of the Academy Inspectors, the Deans of the University Faculties and Heads of the Superior Schools, together with representatives of the University and secondary-school professors in different subjects, of the headmasters, and of the municipal and departmental councils which contribute to the expense of higher education. This council gives advice on regulations, budgets, and administration, and can judge cases of discipline, though appeal can be made from its decision. By means of this academic council, control is, as far as possible, decentralised, and local interests safeguarded. It is, on a small scale, what the Superior Council of Public Instruction is to the Minister at Paris. The constitution of this last council is important, and deserves to be examined in some detail.

Superior Council.—Before 1880, this Superior Council was composed of representatives of every great State service, except the University. The Church, the Army, and the Bench were thus given a powerful influence, which was not always to the advantage of the public schools and demanded reform. Since 1880, the Council has therefore been made representative of the teaching profession, and of all the scientific and intellectual interests of the country. The chairman is the Minister, and there are two vice-chairmen and a secretary. Nine members are nominated by the President of the Republic from among the present and past directors, inspectors, rectors, and professors of public instruction, and four (at the present time including one woman) as representatives of schools free from State control. The remaining forty members are chosen from representatives of the military and Central schools, the University Faculties, the Collège de France, and the Institute; while the teachers in the lycées elect from their number eight representatives of different subjects, and the collège masters two, one of letters and one of science. Finally, there are six representatives of primary teaching, including one woman. The Council, thus composed entirely of educational experts, meets twice a year, and gives its advice on curricula, methods, examinations, points of discipline and administration, text-books, State control of "free" schools, and is a final court of appeal for judgments on individuals. It cannot bind the Minister, but only advise him. If a member wishes to introduce a topic he submits it to the Permanent Section of fifteen members, which recommends the Minister to bring it forward if it

considers the matter proper for discussion: generally, the amount of business is so great and the sessions so rare that a "private member's bill" has little chance of being brought before the "house."

General Inspectors.—Turning now to the central machinery for secondary education, the subject in which we are especially interested, we find the Director provided with fourteen General Inspectors, who are concerned with the superintendence of secondary schools throughout France, each of them being a specialist and ex-teacher of one particular subject and inspecting only in that subject. These General Inspectors are, as it were, the eyes of the Minister freely ranging through the country, just as the Rectors are his eyes fixed on a particular locality; their influence is great in stimulating teaching and in recommending promotion. The result is that any master of particular merit is soon remarked and rewarded, and that any new method of proved utility is passed on by their agency. They supplement the Academy Inspectors, and, by confining themselves to secondary schools, one or more of them come into contact with every school in France each year, and secure the inspection not only of the teaching, but of the administration and general competence of every State establishment. Under the chairmanship of the Director, they, together with the Head of the Normal School, the Vice-Rector of Paris (where the Minister is technically, not really, Rector), and the chief clerks of the four departments under the Minister of Public Instruction, form a smaller Consultative Committee of Secondary Education, deliberating on all questions submitted by the Minister, but more especially occupied with appointments and promotions. The rectors are represented by their reports, not in person. The great meeting is at the end of the school year, when all inspections are over and before the summer holidays begin, during which changes can most conveniently take place. The advancements of grade without changing school (*avancements sur place*), on the other hand, are generally settled during the winter at a special meeting between the inspectors and the rectors; since there is, happily, an increasing tendency to settle down in a place, it is important that the rectors, who know the "local situation" of the masters, should have their say in settling the rise of stipend for the men who attach themselves to their school.

Government by Experts.—Such, then, is the very effective system of external control devised by France to secure the smooth working of her public secondary education. When we compare it with our own, even since 1902, we realise some-

thing of the value of clear and logical distinction between different types of school, and we contrast the stress laid by the French on employing experts, both for general control and for inspection, with our own curious arrangements. The French value too highly their schools and colleges to entrust them, as we have generally done, to the regulation of officials who have never taught and who cover their ignorance of special problems by saying that they are appointed to administer the law, not to study education. France may use a bureaucracy to govern education, but it is an enlightened bureaucracy of ex-teachers, not a routine control by impartial but uninspiring civil servants. Otherwise red-tape would have killed her teaching long ago, so over-close has State supervision hitherto been. But when you promote a teacher of admitted distinction to regulate or inspect his own subject, you are not in much danger of obtuse guidance, however desirable it may be for him to give the schools a freer rein.

A French State School.—But let us leave State supervision and come to the humaner subject of the school, and the life a French schoolboy leads within its walls. All State (or for that matter "free") schools are much alike in France; the chief distinction in public schools, that between lycée and collège being, for the most part, financial only, the State being entirely responsible for the maintenance of the lycée, while the support of the collège falls upon the *commune* as well as the State.[1] Let us take an average provincial *lycée, de plein exercise*, with its full complement of classes, and, say, an attendance of 500 boys. The building will, as a rule, be situated in one of the quieter streets of the town, and, as we approach it, we shall be struck by its size. It will rise to the uniform height of four or five stories and cover an area of 30,000 square yards. On passing through the main entrance we find ourselves in a lofty, spacious hall, connected with a *parloir*, or visitors' room, in which the boys can meet their friends, and which is often decorated with pictures painted by the pupils of the school. Conspicuous on the wall is the *tableau d'honneur*, or distinction list, in which meritorious scholars are "congratulated," or "encouraged," for work and conduct, on the judgment of the masters sitting in full conclave. Through the windows on the side of the hall opposite the entrance can be seen the *cour d'honneur*, or court of honour, laid out in the precise form of an old French

[1] The town decides for itself if a collège would be to its advantage or not; if it establishes one, the State, roughly speaking, makes itself responsible for the cost of teaching and administration, the town maintaining the *material* equipment.

garden. On the left will be a corridor leading to the *grand lycée*, or upper school, to the right another conducting to the *petit lycée*, or lower school. Following one of these corridors, and passing various offices of the administration, we shall come upon a huge quadrangle, planted with occasional trees, and surrounded by high buildings, of which the lower stories will be refectories, class-rooms, and studies, while above will be the dormitories. Each form has not only its own class-room, but its own study, and there are additional rooms for modern languages, and theatres and laboratories for science. If it is *recréation*, the quadrangle, or *cour*, which has from above the air of a large bear-pit, will be filled with crowds of boys, shouting, playing at *balle*, or hand-ball, strolling and gesticulating in eager talk, and generally eating. If we are in the "little lycée," a very pretty sight we shall find the frolics of the small boys, making the air ring with their laughter, rushing everywhere with nimble little bare legs, and often wearing the smart *collégien* uniform. Though they call their school a *boite*, or box, and it certainly suggests enclosure, French boys have a fund of native animation which prevents the length of school hours weighing them down too heavily. Perhaps it is the force of reaction, as well as Gallic gaiety, that makes the younger ones at least seem to enjoy their brief play-time, though they are shut up in a gravelled court, more than our majestic public-school boys their abundant leisure and beautiful playing-fields. The boys are of four classes, (1) *pensionnaires*, or *internes*, boarders, at present about 26 per cent. in the lycées; (2) *demi-pensionnaires*, or half-boarders, who take their mid-day meal at school, about 13 per cent. of the whole; (3) *externes*, or day boys, amounting to 61 per cent. and divided into two classes, (*a*) *externes libres*, who only attend the classes and prepare their work at home, (*b*) *externes surveillés*, who prepare their work in the study with the boarders and are often *demi-pensionnaires*, remaining at school from 8 in the morning till 7.30 at night. The day of a boarder is roughly distributed as follows. He gets up at 5 in the summer or 5.30 in the winter, and after dressing goes to the study, where he stays till 7.15. Between 7.15 and 8 come breakfast and *recréation*. From 8 to 10 or 11 he is up in form, and then, after a short break, he returns to the study till 12. At 12 a substantial dinner, in different refectories for big and little boys, followed by *recréation* till 1.30. 1.30 to 2 or 2.30 is again spent in the study; then come two hours in form; finally, after another break of half an hour (or an hour, in the provinces), a return to the study until supper at 8, immediately followed by bed

at 8.30, for big and little boys alike. It will be remarked that two hours at the most are officially allotted to play, and about eleven to work. The disproportion is admitted, and steps are being taken to remedy it, especially for the little boys. As it is, in many provincial schools in particular, the *recréation* is made longer in the afternoon, and play-time is allowed during the summer in the evening. Games, too, particularly football, are becoming known, and find at least some keen and skilful devotees. The French are fully alive to the necessity of cultivating the body more than in the past; only it is so hard to change tradition all at once. It must be remembered, too, that all the time spent in the study is not necessarily given to work: each study has a very attractive boys' library, and, when lessons are finished, a story or a book of travel may be read. It is true also that the French are a nation of wonderful resistance and elasticity of nature: each big school is provided with a palatial infirmary and a resident medical man, but the one is always empty and the other idle. French boys seem never to be ailing.

The Authorities: (1) Administrative.—Now let us consider the authorities, administrative and teaching, who are in charge of such a school. First comes the headmaster, called *Proviseur* in a lycée, *Principal* in a collège. He is an ex-teacher, with a diploma equal to those of his colleagues, though he confines himself to administration. He is responsible for the general conduct of the lycée, but his time is almost entirely occupied in official correspondence and in interviewing parents. In Paris he can hardly know the members of his staff by sight, much less the boys, possibly 1,500 in number, under his nominal control. As a rule he only sees a boy in case of serious trouble, or conspicuous success in an examination: he is apt to be pompous with colleagues and insincere with parents, assuring them that their son, whom he only knows at best by hearsay, is "doing excellently," and simulating an interest which is obviously professional. There are, especially in the provinces, many instances of headmasters worthy of the name; too often, however, the proviseur has hitherto been a functionary of a rather unattractive type, fettered with red-tape, anxious above everything to avoid scandal, afraid to use the little initiative that is given him, a lover of empty phrases. With the larger "autonomy" now granted, it is possible that a better type will in time emerge: it is certainly badly needed.

The understudy of the proviseur in the bigger lycées is the *Censeur*, who is prone to make his position a sinecure, though he is nominally in especial charge of the discipline of the

establishment. In practice he delegates this function to his two subordinates, the *Surveillants Généraux*, or General Superintendents, each of whom is in charge of the discipline of half the lycée, one taking the Upper, and the other the Lower School. The importance of getting the right man to take up this exacting work (a General Superintendent is never off duty) can be best realised by those intimate with French school-life. A humane man can make the life of the boys comparatively happy by giving them a large licence and treating them with confidence; a martinet will give his department the atmosphere of a prison. In nothing, it is fair to say, has progress been more marked of late than in French discipline. It is now a long time since boys were forbidden to talk at meals, and the custom of forming in lines to march from class to class is growing obsolete. The monastic and military tone of French schools is, in fact, at last becoming *vieux jeu*: let us hope, for the sake of the "si gentils enfants de France,"[1] that this loss of fashion will finally extinguish it.

(2) **Supervising.**—The above four officials, together with the *Économe*, or Bursar, with his assistants, make up the *administration* of the school, all of which is lodged on the premises. Now, since it has hitherto been one of the chief, and worst, characteristics of French school-life, both in State and "free" institutions, to keep the boys under constant supervision, it is obvious that many more officials are necessary to accomplish this end. Hence the origin of the body of *Répétiteurs* in Government schools, or, to give them their full title, *Maîtres Répétiteurs*, or *Maîtres d'Étude*. Till comparatively recently this band of ushers has been the darkest feature of the French system. Appointed and dismissed by the headmaster, paid a miserable pittance, rarely off duty, watching the boys in the study, in the playground, during meals, even during sleep, despised by the boys and teachers alike, often growing old in a scorned and monotonous routine, they have inevitably repaid wrong with wrong, injustice with neglect, and brought French education into disrepute. They were divided in the Lycées into two classes, *généraux* and *divisionnaires*, the former taking the service during the day, and the latter relieving them during recréations and sleeping in the dormitory; while in the Collèges one class of men still do double duty. Thanks to a vigorous association they have at last, gradually, fought through to better things. To-day they are appointed by the Rector and are independent of the whim of their chief; they receive the same pay as Collège professors with the same degree; they

[1] "Rien de si gentil que les petits enfants de France."—Montaigne.

have only study-duty during the day, and their liberty is no longer interrupted by leading boys from class to class, in spite of the protests of the professors at being given this degrading function; they can live outside the school, and receive an indemnity if they undertake extra work; best of all, they are encouraged to take a small share in the work of teaching, being rewarded with the title of *Professeur-Adjoint*. In principle their function is henceforward clear: each will have charge of a study, if possible containing a limited number of boys doing the same work, and the Professeur-Adjoint will be expected to be really a répétiteur, a helper of the boys in their preparation, as well as merely keeping order. Eight years ago there were 2,319 répétiteurs in French public schools, and in 1896 there were 459 qualified candidates for ninety-one masterships in colleges. The old theory that the répétiteur should be a young man studying for his degree and soon promoted to a mastership, has proved unworkable: many men never qualified at all, and there were no posts for the majority of those who did, since the masterships were more and more filled by men direct from the University. The Ribot Commission of 1899 has solved the problem, if only its wise recommendations are properly realised. The *répétitorat*, far from being a degrading office, can be made most useful if only it becomes part of the normal training of every teacher. It will, it is hoped, in time be made compulsory for all professors to begin as Professeurs-Adjoint, taking an active part in educating the boys outside the class-room, interesting themselves in their work and life and games, sometimes taking a form, and often listening to the classes of their full-fledged colleagues, as a training in method. If only this preliminary period is tested by an examination in *teaching*, and is made really probationary, then it will have served much the same purpose as the *Gymnasial-Seminar* in Germany, and, besides securing supervision and help in the study, will do more than anything to break down both the false and disastrous barrier between two grades of professing educators, and that false sense of dignity which most of all prevents the professors from taking a human interest in every side of their boys' life. When all professors have lived with boys during their earlier years in what should be the freer intimacy of the study and playground, they will surely be unwilling to forego later the pleasures that such intimacy affords.

Every question, however, has its converse side; and for the moment there is a very ugly converse to this amelioration of the lot of a body of men among whose numbers were at one time Daudet, Bourget, Berthelot, Brunetière, and so many.

famous people. By the new regulations the Proviseur is given the right to replace the Professeurs-Adjoint, in purely supervision duty, by a new category of men called *Surveillants d'Internat*, appointed by himself, sleeping in the dormitory, and, in fact, except that they will have shorter hours and even less pay, corresponding entirely to the old category of ushers of the lower grade. It is hoped to induce many Répétiteurs and University students to fulfil these functions, in order to gain board, lodging, and pocket-money. In towns with Faculties this will be easy; but in smaller towns, elementary teachers and even old soldiers are already employed. The old difficulty is certain to recur in a new form. When will the University of France either follow, in her public schools, the practice of her ecclesiastical rivals, and make the teacher the superintendent, or better still, since this is out of the question, follow our English custom of self-government, and let a senior boy be trusted with functions both within his competence and invaluable for his own education? The Ribot Commissioners themselves showed sympathy with this solution.

(3) **Teaching.**—It has, perhaps, been worth while to dwell at some length on this problem of supervision, because it always gives occasion to the enemy to scoff at French public education. We have seen that it bids fair to be wisely solved in France, in spite of one false move. When we consider the teachers, or professors, as they are called, there is matter in the main rather for our admiring emulation than for apology. Chiefly for social reasons, in its lower classes, the French secondary school does double duty with the primary school, in some cases taking little boys even from the age of three. These infant classes are taught by women, fully qualified *Institutrices*. Above them come the Preparatory and Elementary Divisions, the former being of two years' duration, with a modern language started in the second year, under the charge of *Instituteurs*, or primary teachers; while the latter, the Elementary Division, comprises the eighth and seventh classes (in France the highest form is the first), and is taught by masters with a special diploma (*certificat d'aptitude*) by no means easy to gain. By the time a boy is ten or eleven he will have left the seventh class and entered the sixth, with which secondary teaching proper begins. In France there are two grades of masters for this teaching: (1) The *Agrégés*, who, after taking the degree of *Licencié*, equivalent to an honours B.A., have been successful in a competitive examination called an *agrégation* (equal in difficulty to that for a Fellowship), by which the principal posts in

public schools are filled. The most successful candidates are, as a rule, those who have been among the hundred scholars of the Higher Normal School, to win a place in which is the blue ribbon of French schoolboys, like a Balliol or a Trinity scholarship with us. The exact number of vacancies in each subject is announced beforehand; about 8 per cent. of the candidates are chosen. There are eight kinds of *agrégations*: for Letters (the teaching of the two top forms in Classics and French); for Grammar (the teaching of the sixth, fifth, fourth, and third in the same subjects); for Philosophy; for *One* Modern Language (English, German, Italian, Spanish); for History and Geography; for Mathematics; for Physical Science; and, lastly, for Natural Science. The *agrégés* monopolise the masterships of the Paris and the more important provincial lyceés; in the smaller ones there are a certain number of *licenciés*, who, however, are never *titulaires* of their chairs, but only provisional, *chargés de cours*, and the tendency is to fill all the posts with men holding the higher degree. (2) The *Licenciés* are masters who have taken a *licence*, either a *licence ès lettres* (subdivided, like the agrégation, into philosophy, letters, history and geography, and modern languages), or a *licence ès sciences*, (subdivided into mathematics, physical science, and natural science). They hold the masterships in Collèges, and provisional posts in Lyčeés, when they get higher pay, never, however, as much as an agrégé. For each modern language, there is also a special competitive examination, called the *certificat d'aptitude*, and a *certifié*, whether he holds the *licence* or not, through being more of a specialist, has better prospects as a language master than a *licencié* with a "mention" in the subject. It is evident that, as far as special knowledge goes, the French have every guarantee for expert teaching; no man teaches outside his own branch, but of that branch he is past master. All who have listened to different classes in France will bear testimony to the general excellence of the teaching given, and reflect upon conditions at home, where a pass-man is often a jack-of-all-trades, and an uninspired bungler in all alike, and where, till recently, any form-master could, of course, take his boys in such side-subjects as French and History, if not in Mathematics. And then we are surprised that the boys learn little beyond classics; just as if they did not know that their master is only one lesson ahead, and not always that! They manage things rather differently abroad. In France we may be sure that in a State school, whether it be a collège in a tiny country town, where there are only

eighty boys, and several classes have to be joined together for each subject, or a Paris lycee with twelve hundred boys and seventy professors, the teaching will equally be in the hands of fully qualified men, with an open career for ambition, and high professional and social status. Now that training is likely to be generally added (as it is already for agrégés) to this complete technical knowledge, and that greater stress is laid on education, the results should surpass even their present high standard. What France needs above all is to unify her masters, by abolishing the dual system of teachers and ushers, and by leaving supervision to assistant professors, on probation or reading for a higher degree, in so far as it is not left to monitors. Next, promotion should be given, not merely to brilliant scholars, who may easily talk over the heads of their hearers, but much more, for the lower forms, to men who combine competent knowledge of their subject with a genuine interest in boy-life, who unite pastoral with didactic qualities. Far too much has been hitherto made of degrees; the *superstition du grade* has encouraged men to spend all their hours outside the class-room in research. A man who lives for his boys is apt to be regarded as abnormal by his colleagues, and as dangerous by his chief, with the result that Ecclesiastical Schools are preferred by many parents. Another result of the same exaggeration has been the too great passivity of the class, the master knowing his subject, but not the workings of the boyish mind. Of all this the French are themselves aware, and there are hopeful signs of reform. Their masters fulfil already two of the chief conditions of success: (1) independence and security (they are nominated by the Minister and can only be dismissed for serious offence); (2) a thorough professional knowledge of their subject. When they have added a third, enlightened interest in the out-of-school activities of their boys, they will come very near perfection; for they have a national gift for clear and stimulating teaching, and a keen sense of the dignity of their profession. A probationary period of training will remove the only remaining blot upon the picture—the case, very rare, it is true, of the inefficient master, who cannot be dismissed, but is changed from pillar to post, to his own misery and the disadvantage of every school which is forced to take its turn in harbouring the wanderer. We have dwelt on the position of the French teachers at this length, because it is really of international importance to get a clear conception of what teachers are and might be, and the French qualities and defects are so converse to our own that they perhaps repay a somewhat detailed

study. The training and payment of French masters we shall discuss in another chapter.[1]

Curricula.—The subject of teachers brings us naturally to the consideration of what is taught in French schools, to the curricula or *programmes*, and the attempt they have made to harmonise the competing claims of modern life. First, we notice that not only were Mathematics, Science, and the Mother-tongue definitely made part of the ordinary Classical course by Napoleon, but as early as the Restoration a tentative Modern-side, without Greek or Latin, was instituted, and officially organised in 1865, under the title of *enseignement spécial*, in order to give those boys who were destined for commerce the advantages of a Secondary School training. Until 1880, however, this department occupied a subordinate and rather despised position, its pupils being termed *bestiaux* by their Classical comrades, and its masters holding a special degree. But from this date onwards it became increasingly assimilated in length of course, in the literary character of its studies, and in the recognition of its diploma for different careers, to the Classical course, which, in its turn, be it noted, had, since 1852, bifurcated at the top into "Letters" and "Science" sides. The assimilation is now complete, since the thorough remodelling of the curriculum in 1902. By the present scheme (we quote from the official regulations) "Secondary teaching is co-ordinated with primary, so as to follow a primary four-years' course (whether given in the lycée or in the elementary school). It is arranged in a seven-years' course, divided into two *cycles*, the first lasting four years, the second three."

Four Years' General Course.—"In the first *cycle*, boys can choose between two sections. In one they are taught (besides subjects common to both) Latin, as a compulsory subject, beginning in the first year of the course, *i.e.* in the sixth class, and Greek, as an optional subject, beginning in the third year, *i.e.* in the fourth class. In the other section,

[1] Pp. 238,248-251. While it is true that French teachers often research too much and educate too little, it must at the same time be remembered that leisure for reading is of the first necessity for fresh and vigorous teaching. What stress the French lay upon this leisure may be judged by the Minister's Circular of July 26, 1902. "Headmasters should be economical of the time of their colleagues." [Except in lower forms, a master teaches from twelve to fifteen hours a week.] "They require a large amount of leisure, not only to rest body and mind, not only for the work of preparing lessons, but also for the more independent work by which they maintain and renew their intellectual capital. In this the boys profit as much as the masters themselves. It may be said that the chief value of University (*i.e.* secondary) teaching comes from this independent work, which gives it a continuous stream of fresh life and prevents its lapsing into routine." O beati Galli!

there is no Latin or Greek, but fuller teaching is devoted to French, science, drawing, etc. In both sections the curricula are so arranged that, after passing through the first *cycle*, a boy has acquired an intellectual training that can be made to suffice by itself and that forms a whole. At the end of this cycle, a diploma of lower-grade secondary study can be granted, in consideration of marks gained during the four-years' course, and after consulting the masters who have taught the classes."

Three Years' Special Course.—"In the second *cycle*, boys can choose between four main sections: (*a*) Latin and Greek, (*b*) Latin and a fuller study of Modern Languages, (*c*) Latin and a more thorough study of Sciences [sciences include mathematics], (*d*) Modern Languages and Sciences, without Latin. Section (*d*), which will usually be taken by boys who have done no Latin in the first *cycle*, is also open to boys who give up Latin after completing their four-years' course."

It is also decided that, subject to ministerial approval, Academic Councils can arrange, in a certain number of schools, a special two-years' science course, adapted to the particular industrial needs of each district, and to be taken after the first *cycle*, with recognition by a diploma granted upon examination. The *Baccalauréat*, or Bachelor's degree, has now been given an identical title for all subjects (no longer being divided into *ès Lettres*, *ès Sciences*, *Moderne*), and confers the same privileges on candidates of all sections. It is taken, as before, in two parts, separated by at least a year's interval: the first part being an examination in the subjects of one of the four sections of the second *cycle*, and the second part being a test in Philosophy or Mathematics as the main subject, though either of these alternatives embraces, in part, the other, and physical and natural science besides. The time-table is arranged as follows:

FIRST CYCLE

DIVISION A

	HOURS PER WEEK			
	Sixth Form.	Fifth Form.	Fourth Form.	Third Form.
French	3	3	3	3
Latin	7	7	6	6
Modern Languages	5	5	5	5
History and Geography	3	3	3	3
Arithmetic	2	2	–	–
Mathematics	–	–	2	3
Natural Science	1	1	1	–
Drawing	2	2	2	2
Moral Teaching	–	–	1	1
Greek (optional). { Boys who take this are excused 2 hours' Modern Languages and 1 hour's Drawing. }	–	–	3	3
	23	23	23	23

DIVISION B

	HOURS PER WEEK			
	Sixth Form.	Fifth Form.	Fourth Form.	Third Form.
French	5	5	5	4
Writing	1	1	–	–
Modern Languages	5	5	5	5
History and Geography	3	3	3	3
Arithmetic	4	–	–	–
Mathematics and Geometrical Drawing	–	4	–	–
Mathematics, Bookkeeping, and Geometrical Drawing	–	–	5	5
Natural Science	2	2	–	1
Physics and Chemistry	–	–	2	2
Drawing	2	2	2	3
Law (public and civil)	–	–	–	1
Moral Teaching	–	–	1	1
	22	22	23	25

SECOND CYCLE

	Section A.	*Section B.*	*Section C.*	*Section D.*
SECOND FORM	Greek-Latin.	Latin-Modern Languages.	Latin-Sciences.	Sciences-Modern Languages.
French	3	3	3	3
Latin	4	4	4	–
Greek	5	–	–	–
Modern History	2	2	2	2
Ancient History	2	2	–	–
Geography	1	1	1	1
Modern Languages	2	7	2	7
Mathematics	2	2	5	5
Physics and Chemistry	1	1	3	3
Practical Science Work	–	–	2	2
Drawing	2	2	4	4
Geology (12 one-hour lectures for all sections)	–	–	–	–
	24	24	26	27
FIRST FORM (FORMERLY RHETORIC)				
French	3	3	3	3
Latin	3	3	3	–
Extra Latin	2	2*	–	–
Greek	5	–	–	–
Modern History	2	2	2	2
Ancient History	2	2	–	–
Geography	1	1	1	1
Modern Languages	2	7	2	7
Mathematics	1+2*	1+2*	5	5
Physics	1	1	–	–
Physics and Chemistry	–	–	3	3
Practical Science Work	–	–	2	2
Drawing	2*	2*	4	4
	22+2*	20+2*	25	27

* Optional.

PHILOSOPHY AND MATHEMATICAL FORMS

	HOURS PER WEEK			
	Philosophy.		Mathematics.	
	Section A.	*Section B.*	*Section C.*	*Section D.*
Philosophy	$8\frac{1}{2}$	$8\frac{1}{2}$	3	3
Greek and Latin	4*	–	–	–
Latin	–	2*	–	–
Modern Languages	2*	3	2	3
History and Geography	$3\frac{1}{2}$	$3\frac{1}{2}$	$3\frac{1}{2}$	$3\frac{1}{2}$
Mathematics	$2\frac{1}{2}$	$2\frac{1}{2}$	8	8
Physics and Chemistry	3	3	5	5
Natural Sciences	2	2	2	2
Practical Science Work	–	–	2	2
Drawing	2*	2*	2+2*	2+2*
Hygiene (a course of 12 one-hour lectures)	–	–	–	–
	$19\frac{1}{2}+8$*	$22\frac{1}{2}+4$*	$27\frac{1}{2}+2$*	$28\frac{1}{2}+2$*

* Optional.

Salient Points of French Teaching.—Such are the curricula in their bare skeleton-form. It is to be noticed that they are drawn up by an expert body of present and past teachers, and that they are accompanied by instructions, indicating methods and prescribing the partition of work between forms, with the authors and periods to be read in each. These instructions leave great scope to the individuality of the teacher, both in the choice of books, within limits, and in the details of method. They aim principally at indicating the manner in which a consensus of the best opinion considers that a subject should be treated, and at preventing confusion and overlapping by making each form's programme clear and definite. This explains to us why the French have attained to such a high standard of teaching: they have devised a national method for each subject, and constant discussion, oral and in the press, serves equally to suggest improvements and record experiments. No master is in the dark, or left to elaborate his own system without professional guidance; the *programmes* give him advice, and excellent advice it is.[1] When we read it we are no longer surprised that, in spite of the general lack of pedagogic training, French teaching has won and maintained for more than a century so high a reputation.

Unhappily there is no space for us to do more than mention a few of the numberless interesting points raised by

[1] The interested reader can get a complete copy of *programmes* and instructions by buying a *Plan d'Études dans les Lycées et Collèges de Garçons* (Paris, Delalain Frères, 1 fr. 50 c.).

these curricula. First, the importance given to *French* should be observed. It is taught in the public schools of France by the form-master who takes the Classical work, and with equal care. Composition of every kind, and wide reading of the best samples of the literature of different periods, are its chief notes. The result is seen in the keen literary interest of the educated Frenchman, and in an unrivalled national style, in which correct taste and delicacy and precision of touch are instinctive.[1] Next, the gradual curtailing of *Classical Study* during the last century. No form gives more than ten hours a week to both Latin and Greek; of compositions, only prose is retained. Rather less is read than in our top forms, and there used to be too great a tendency to use extracts. But France has avoided the exclusively philological and grammatical emphasis of Germany; she treats the Classics as humanities, as literature and a revelation of a past world. Happily, her boys seem to like the classical work they do, and are allowed, more than many of our own boys, to feel they are progressing. The great danger of the moment is lest Greek should disappear in the little country schools, where, if too many boys choose "soft options," Section A will become too small to allow of a proper staff. Much, however, can be done by joining classes together, and we ourselves have seen admirable keenness for Greek among country boys in the little old-world college of Semur in Burgundy, where the chief classical master is an enthusiast. As to *Modern Languages*, we will only say that the introduction of the Direct Method has transformed their teaching. Each is taught by its own specialist, and a boy chooses one language as his main, and another as his subsidiary, subject. There is also an excellent stress laid upon the literary quality of the languages; they are made an instrument of culture, not of bagmanship. *History and Geography* are taught by another expert, and are widely comprehensive. In the sixth, Ancient History is taught, while the Geography is general, followed by America and Australasia. In the fifth we get Middle Age History, and the Geography of Asia and Africa. With the fourth come Modern History and European Geography. In the third, Contemporary History, and the Geography of France and her colonies. When we reach the Second Cycle, A and B revise, in the second, Oriental and Greek History, treated now from a higher standpoint, and all four sections take the History of Europe from the tenth

[1] One of the present authors has written a monograph on the teaching of the Mother-tongue in French lycées for a forthcoming volume of Special Reports.

century to the beginning of the eighteenth, and Geography in its physiographical and economical aspects. In the first, A and B revise and deepen their knowledge of Roman History, from primitive times to the fall of the Empire, and all sections study the History of the eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries, and the Geography of France. Two things are herein to be observed: (1) that, in the Second Cycle, the rapid sketches learnt in the First are recapitulated and looked at from a new, more advanced, standpoint; (2) that not only are History and Geography, as far as possible, connected in study, but they are fitted in to some extent with the teaching of French Literature—*e.g.* in the second and first the same periods roughly hold good for both French and History. As to *Science*, note (1) the parity given to Natural with Physical Science, and the same principle of recapitulation that we have mentioned above; (2) the theoretical treatment of the Sciences, only science specialists doing laboratory work. The *Moral Teaching* given in the fourth and third is a new feature, and as yet we cannot estimate its success in filling the void left by the old dogmatic Christianity, which has practically become a dead letter in the University.[1] There is, perhaps, room enough for it as an ally, rather than a rival, of religion; certainly it is very harmless. As a rule it is given by the teacher of French; in the fourth, the virtues of sincerity, courage, moral delicacy, honesty, kindness, and self-education are discussed; with the third we pass on to solidarity, justice, and social fraternity, the family, professional duty, the nation, the State and its laws, humanity, and individual liberty and social discipline. Unfortunately the programme crowds it out when it is most needed, by adolescents who are beginning the Second Cycle. The course of *Hygiene* given in the last year embraces water, air, food and drink, exercise, contagious diseases, immunity, sanitation, infection from domestic animals. The course in *Philosophy*, though too rapid to admit of much original thought, and certainly given to rather young students, at least guarantees that every educated Frenchman, whether he afterwards goes to a Faculty or not, has heard something of the main problems of psychology, æsthetics, logic, ethics, and metaphysics, and knows a little about their history and chief exponents. There is certainly no class that is more generally enjoyed. We might also, with advantage, notice the attention given to Drawing.

Physical Exercise.—Out of class-hours, gymnastics and

[1] The State, however, allows religious instruction to be given out of school-hours by priests, pastors, and rabbis, and, even after the "Separation," continues to pay them.

military drill are taught for three hours a week; fencing is very extensively practised; riding-classes are often organised; and recently all schools have been encouraged to teach shooting. Thursday and Sunday are holidays, and are reserved for music-lessons, detention-classes, and, in the case of boarders, the sad crocodile walks which have not yet been indexed as an absurd recreation. Any boarder with a friend in the town can, however, generally get leave to spend the afternoon and evening *en famille*.

Relative numbers in State and Free Schools.—Let us now consider the present position and cost of French public secondary instruction. We have seen that since 1850 the State has ceased to enjoy the legal monopoly of education; various causes, political and social, have resulted in the rapid spread of Ecclesiastical Schools, which give in the main the same instruction as the State (since they are obliged to submit their boys to the State examination, and by recent law must employ teachers with adequate University diplomas), but which claim, with what justice we know not, superiority in moral education. Their growth may be compared with that of State Secondary Schools by a few statistics. In 1854 there were in State Schools 46,440 boys; in free Unsectarian Schools 42,462; in free Ecclesiastical 21,195. By 1898, State Schools numbered 85,599 boys; free Unsectarian 10,182; Ecclesiastical 68,825 (with 23,000 more boys in *petits séminaires*, a lower grade of Secondary School). The free Unsectarian School has steadily declined. In 1865, there were 657 such schools with 43,009 pupils; in 1876, 494 with 31,249 boys; in 1899, only 202 with 9,725 boys. Of the Ecclesiastical Schools there were, till recently, three types: (*a*) under diocesan authority; (*b*) directed by secular priests; (*c*) directed by congregations, excluding many not legally authorised, such as the Jesuits and Marists, who, however, "turned the law" by putting a layman or secular priest at the head of the school. Schools of type (*a*) had 9,107 boys in 1865, and 12,250 in 79 establishments in 1899; type (*b*) had 16,315 boys in 1865, and 23,636 in 216 schools in 1899; type (*c*), on the other hand, in the latter year outnumbered both, boasting 31,757 pupils in 143 schools. Thus at the beginning of the present century, apart from the 142 *petits séminaires*, 41 per cent. of the Secondary School-boys of France were in Ecclesiastical schools, and half of them were boarders, to the great chagrin of the State, which has a mysterious fondness for boarders, and found that in her own Lycées the percentage of her favourites had fallen from forty to twenty-six, and in the Collèges from thirty-four to thirty, although her Lycées

had increased in number. Hence, it may be, some of her bitterness against the congregations and their subsequent expulsion and spoliation, in so far as they did not outmanœuvre the law by outward self-secularisation. Ten years ago, then, (1899) the number of boys in French Secondary Schools was as follows:

	Boys.	
In 110 Lycées and 230 Collèges .	86,321	(52,372 in L., 33,949 in C.)
In Free Unsectarian Schools . .	9,725	
In Ecclesiastical Schools . . .	67,643	
In *Petits Séminaires*	23,497	
	187,186	
Deducting boys in private schools attending State classes . .	1,576	
Total . . .	185,610	(about 5 per 1,000 of the population.)

The number of Ecclesiastical pupils is said to have since diminished, but not seriously. The State population has remained fairly constant,[1] except that the very wholesome tendency to send children as day-boys rather than boarders is even more pronounced. It must be remembered, in considering the above figures, that in State Secondary Schools in 1899 there were 1,168 primary classes, including 209 of infants under women teachers. Allowing an average of twenty to a class, we must therefore deduct at least 20,000 boys under ten from the 86,000, leaving an uncontested superiority of numbers with the Free Schools, which do not include the primary teaching.

Cost of Secondary Education.—As to the cost to the State of public Secondary Schools for boys, the following are the figures in the estimates for 1896:

	£
General Administrative Expenses	58,400
Lycées	438,080
Remission of fees in Lycées	36,000
State Grant to Communal Colleges	146,151
National Scholarships	121,600
Revenue of Lycées from Departments and Communes . .	48,581
Total . . .	£848,812

[1] The numbers in 1908 were 59,998 boys in the Lycées (215 more than in 1907) and 36,291 in the Collèges (385 less than in 1907). For these figures we are indebted to the kindness of Prof. Schoell, of the Lycée of Chartres.

Besides this, we may roughly put the expense incurred by towns and departments in maintaining Collèges at £155,000 a year, and we have as yet allowed nothing for building, which is reckoned, between 1878 and 1885, for boys' Secondary Schools, to have cost the State nearly £7,000,000, though the amount fell to £1,600,000 between 1885 and 1891, and in 1893 was only £69,261. The Lycée of Dijon alone cost £176,000 and the Lycée Janson de Sailly at Paris, besides the £70,000 left by its aponymous founder, took another £240,000 out of the State coffers. It is computed that, if we consider the interest on the average sum spent on building in the last thirty years, it comes to about 250 fr. per boy, and that since, besides this, the State contributes an average of 253 fr. for each boy in the lycées, and 128 fr. per boy in the collèges, we may put the cost of every boy at about £20, including interest on capital charges and contributions of both central and local authorities. In 1898 the State lost 9,720,593 fr. on the fees of day-boys, and 1,755,005 fr. on the fees of boarders in the lycées alone, and thereby expended about £440,000. By the new régime the Lycée is made autonomous in dealing with its boarding arrangements and is expected to make both ends meet. The fees in French schools vary, according to the district and the age of the boy; on the whole they are very low, considering the excellent value received in teaching and accommodation. It is estimated that the family bears on an average 52 per cent. of the total cost, though in this total cost the capital charges are never reckoned. In Paris, a boarder pays from £44 to £60 a year, according to age, a half-boarder £27, a day-boy from £10 to £16, with an extra £4 if he works in the study. In the provinces, a boy can be a boarder for from £24 to £40, and a day-boy from £3 to £7, with an extra fee of £3 13*s.* for supervision. Books are provided at £2 a year for day-boys and 10*s.* for boarders. In Free Unsectarian Schools the fees are much the same, varying from £24 in the provinces to £72 in Paris for a boarder, and from £4 to £20 for a day-boy. Ecclesiastical Schools are a little cheaper, running from £20 to £64 in the first case, and £4 to £14 in the second. As for the 230 Communal Collèges, out of the £408,272 spent on their maintenance in 1898, the State contributed £145,893, the Communes £154,306 and the fees (excluding the boarding-fee in the 197 collèges where it is a private arrangement with the Principal) amounted to £134,474. It was found that the expense to the towns had increased by one-third in ten years, and the Commission proposed that the State subvention should be raised to £300,000; at present goes chiefly

to the payment of salaries. In the same year it was recorded that in the Lycées, 45 per cent. of the boys were on the classical side, 31 per cent. on the modern, and 24 per cent. doing elementary work, while in the Collèges, only 29 per cent. were on the classical side, compared with 41 per cent. on the modern and 30 per cent. below the course.

Scholarships.—To consider the question of Scholarships, it was calculated that in 1887 there were 5,700 in the Lycées and 4,700 in the Collèges, one Secondary Schoolboy in 9 being a scholar, an average of 11 per cent. When we compare this with the 25 per cent. of free places, which is the present ideal of our Board of Education, we might think France relatively illiberal in the measures she takes to secure an educational ladder. But we must remember (1) that, *apart from the outlay on buildings*, France spends about £10 on the education of every boy (endowments are so small that they need not be counted) and receives as tuition-fee an average of £3 10*s*, when we include the collèges, thereby paying for every boy what is practically two-thirds of the expense of his education; (2) that France had ten years ago 21,180 boys in admirable Higher Elementary Schools (which educate sons of small farmers, mechanics and foremen, between the ages of 12 and 15) and 1,153 boys in her four "Professional" (*i.e.* Technical) Schools, and that she does not encourage confusion between elementary and secondary education by giving, as we often do, a really primary education under a false name. A French boy only enters a Lycée or Collège if he means to stay at least till the end of the First Cycle, and the French parent prefers to pay a small fee for a genuine article, rather than get a counterfeit for nothing. Again, the sons and grandsons of professors and teachers are educated free in the establishment where their father or grandfather is teaching, though they do not count in the number of scholars.[1] But the main principle in France to-day is that scholarships should be awarded for poverty and intelligence, rather than for services rendered to the State by relations, as in the days of Napoleon; and, since 1848, departmental and communal *bourses*, as distinguished from *bourses nationales*, have been given to children of poor parents,[2] while, since 1881, day-boy scholarships are awarded to boys whose parents would have needed help to keep their sons as boarders. The system on which National Scholarships are awarded is as follows. The chief qualifications are necessity and the ability to pass a State examination; the services

[1] Also, a reduction of 12½ per cent. is made on all school-bills, for tuition and boarding alike, if two or more brothers attend the same school.

[2] In 1899 their value amounted to £52,000.

rendered by relatives are made a secondary consideration. The examination varies with the age of the boy, but he can offer himself at any time after passing the seventh class, being tested in work of the same difficulty as that of the form in which he happens to be. If successful, he is first given a *bourse d'essai*, which lapses at the end of a year unless he gives satisfaction, when he is definitely appointed to a *bourse de mérite*. After this, his *bourse* is renewed year after year conditionally on his name appearing on the *tableau d'honneur*, and it may be increased for good work. On the other hand, after two warnings, the *Conseil de Discipline* can advise its being taken away; though this power is very rarely exercised. Scholarships vary in amount, so as to cover from a quarter to the whole of the expense; and their holders in France, as with us, have generally very successful careers. It has been suggested that boarding scholarships for schools should be tenable in approved private families; and every encouragement is given to the *bourses d'entretien*, which provide for a poor day-boy's maintenance by paying a sum to his family.[1]

Bachelor's Degree.—The ambition of all French boys who can afford it, is to take at least the Bachelor's degree, which opens the door to all branches of the Civil Service, and to the liberal professions. The examination is adapted to the school courses (not *vice versa*, as with us), and is taken in two parts, one after a year's work in the First Class, and the other after taking Philosophy or Mathematics. In the paper-work (*Écrit*) more stress is laid upon answering a single question thoroughly and tastefully than upon showing varied and extensive knowledge, this last being rather tested by the *Oral*, to which candidates who have passed on written work are admitted. The examiners are now chosen in about equal numbers from University and Secondary professors, and a boy can produce his *livret scolaire* to show his school record. It may be said, in passing, that, short terminal tests apart, examinations are not over-emphasised all through a boy's school-life in France. Mainly on the advice of his masters, he is promoted, or kept back, after each year's course, though a good examination at the end of the year can compensate for previous bad work. In the *Baccalauréat*, held in July, rather less than half the candidates pass at their first attempt, the rest presenting themselves in the following November, after being crammed during the holidays. Distinguished and needy Bachelors, on signing a ten-years'

[1] There are, besides, numerous scholarships in Clerical Schools, more, it is estimated, than in State schools.

teaching engagement, are given a *bourse de licence* to read for a higher degree, and there are also *bourses de séjour à l'étranger* for modern-language students and professors. The tendency, however, for French families to prefer a Government or professional career for their sons, to the detriment of commerce, from which trained ability is too much diverted, is generally deplored, and scholarships are now given that are tenable in the great Commercial and Technical Schools. The need for such a change is shown by the ambitions recorded by 975 *boursiers de lycée* in 1894-5-6, of whom 204 meant to be professors, 66 aspired to the magistrature or bar, 215 to Government administration, 259 to medicine or pharmacy, 123 to the army, and only 107 to business or manufacturing. It is no wonder that the liberal careers are overcrowded, and that France is in danger of producing what Bismarck called an "intellectual proletariate."

Conclusion.—As to the recent reforms, it is perhaps too early to estimate their value in practical application. In theory, the overcrowded lycées, "constructed like mediæval fortresses, and hampering progress by their very design," are condemned, and the future may perhaps see them converted into museums and hospitals, while their population of boys migrates to smaller schools, further from the centre of the town, where more human relations can grow up between teachers and taught, and playing-fields become a necessity of daily life. Already, in the Lycée Michelet at Vanves and the Lycée Lakanal at Sceaux, we find schools on the outskirts of Paris provided with fine parks, which the authorities, were they not overtimid, could convert into ideal playgrounds; and French reformers are aiming at a future system of schools, of which each shall have a maximum population of 300, and be built with a view to utility rather than massive dignity, schools in which the boys can attain freedom and their teachers personal knowledge of every pupil. At the present time the school for young boys below the fourth class is, in large towns, sometimes in a separate building from the upper school, and there is therefore no excuse for not instituting a liberal régime suitable to little children. The best type of such a "*Vorschule*" is the Lycée Montaigne, built on the site of the old *pépinière* of the Luxembourg gardens; and no one who has seen the *sortie* of its merry small people will regret that a nursery of trees has been converted into a nursery of men. If only the Ribot Commissioners' advice is taken, and boarders are distributed, as in Germany, among recognised families, preferably among the masters, the French lycée will gain rather than lose, since its chief defect has hitherto been the *internat*

as conducted on French lines. Much may be hoped, meanwhile, from the new autonomy given to each school, by which the headmaster is to cease to be an administrative machine, and is expected to run his establishment on the lines most adapted to its situation, his responsibility and control, within limits, being greatly increased. This will make for diversity and variety of type and experiment, than which nothing is more needed: the monotonous identity of French schools is at present appalling. The mention of this leads us to deplore the ruinous French tradition of rivalry and enmity between State and clerical schools. Whatever its justification in the past and its political explanation to-day, the result is disastrous to education, which demands, above everything, to be treated, like the Army and Navy, as a national concern beyond the reach of political and religious bickerings. The countless able books produced by both sides during the last twenty years testify not only to the keen interest taken by the public in even the details of school work and life (which is excellent), but also to the bitterness of party feeling invariably displayed (which is altogether lamentable). The State abandoned monopoly of teaching nearly sixty years ago and should avoid any attempt to return to it. Her aim should be to give the very best secondary education herself, to act as a model teacher. She should, after taking suitable guarantees,[1] rather encourage than crush free schools, since friendly rivalry alone can prevent stagnation; and so far from forbidding, as she has done by recent legislation,[2] State masters to teach in such schools, she ought rather to train and pay teachers in all schools alike, leaving other expenses to be met as the price of relative freedom in religion and educational principles. As things are, there is a danger of the State system, however perfect, proving, by its extension, too much even for the strong individuality hitherto so typical of the French people. The whole country would have been the poorer had Lacordaire not been the headmaster of the clerical school of Sorèze, as all who have read his *Lettres aux jeunes gens*, or merely Matthew Arnold's description of him and his school in *A French Eton*,[3] will admit. France needs more, not fewer, apostles of this type, be they priest or layman; she is surely great enough to embrace and recognise every kind of past tradition,

[1] French "free schools" are inspected, as to sanitation and work, by the Government. They are specially licensed on condition that the headmaster has a teacher's certificate and all teachers suitable University degrees.

[2] The only exceptions are Sainte-Barbe and the École Alsacienne, which not only employ State teachers, but enjoy a State subvention.

[3] pp. 21, *seq.*

to protect the minority of the moment, to help all schools that are working in a common cause.

To Englishmen who try to be impartial judges, the worst feature of French secondary schools will be their neglect hitherto of physical and moral education; their tendency to over-intellectualism; their culture of the brain at the expense of the heart and body (compensated, perhaps, to some extent by the toughness and elasticity of French physique and the natural warmth of French affections).[1] In each school the separation of administrator from teacher, and teacher from usher, has corrupted all three; and *corruptio optimi pessima*. As to *programmes*, the energies of the boys are, admittedly, too dissipated in the Second Cycle; they learn too many subjects somewhat superficially, rather than much about a few, as would be preferable after the previous, admirably encyclopædic, course of the First Cycle. Most of all, the Classics, which have been the main source of French literary and stylistic inspiration, are likely to suffer from being allotted insufficient time, however good the teaching. Again, we must repeat that there is not enough freedom in the development of each school; nor enough freedom gradually given to the individual boy as he grows older, in order that there may be no harsh change between the supervision of school and the complete liberty of French University life. Last, but not least, there is not enough respect for the religious and political views of opponents: France pushes logic too far; she has long been a nation of two camps.

The good points of French lycées are too many to enumerate. The teaching is admirable, and by the curricula the boy fulfils Matthew Arnold's dictum—he gets "*to know himself and the world.*"[2] Science pervades the teaching of languages, and a literary spirit the teaching of the sciences. Intellectually, again to quote Arnold, "on the Continent the middle-class may be said to be brought up *on the first plane*; in England it is brought up *on the second plane.*"[3] There is, too, a splendid freedom in French State Schools from those class distinctions which impede the spread of the *Einheitschule* in Germany, and clog educational progress with us. Education in France is cheap to buy; but the teaching

[1] Within the last decade or so, as a result of M. Demolin's book, *À quoi tient la supériorité des Anglo-Saxons?* five schools on English boarding-school lines have been started, with no little success. The most important are the École des Roches, the École de l'Ile de France, and the Collège de Normandie. Their fees vary between £80–120 (according to age) in some, and the ordinary fee of a lycée in others.

[2] *Higher Schools and Universities in Germany* (Macmillan), p. 155.

[3] *Ibid.*, p. xvi.

is always an article of first quality, guaranteed by the State. Again, there is a logical and clear distinction (and connection) between primary, secondary, and superior instruction, and no absurd difference is made between the subjects taught to the little boys in the lycée and those in the elementary school. The French Universities combine advanced teaching with individual research; they do not, like our own, give to the majority a low type of secondary instruction: in them our "pass-man" is unknown, for his education would have been finished in the Second Form at school. After all, the best test of a system of teaching is the man it produces; and all who know them must recognise the strong literary and intellectual bent common to even average educated Frenchmen—shown alike in the books they read and in the letters and articles they write. With more individuality of type and less internal bureaucracy in the school, and with much more tolerance in the nation, France could boast of a national system of secondary education of singular excellence. Those who love her will confidently await the day when these ideals are made realities, chiefly through the recognition of the simple truth that all religion is equally respectable and useful, whether the heart be touched by Catholic charity or by Socialistic altruism.

[Books especially consulted: *A French Eton*, Matthew Arnold; *l'Éducation dans l'Université*, Marion; Ribot Commission, *Enquête sur l'Enseignement Secondaire*, 1899; and various *Bulletins* and *Annuaires* of Public Instruction. The reader is referred to *La Réforme de l'Enseignement Secondaire*, Ribot (Armand Colin), 1900; and, for a trenchant criticism of State Schools, to *L'État et ses Rivaux*, by le Père Burnichon, S.J. (Poussielgue), 1898. For current criticism and information the *Revue Universitaire* and the *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement* are altogether admirable.]

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CHAPTER III

SECONDARY EDUCATION IN GERMANY

THE solution offered by Germany of the problem of Secondary Education, has deservedly attracted more attention than the contribution of any other nation to the same subject. The system of German schools has been studied with attention, and often with enthusiasm, by leading educationists of both Europe and America; it has directly moulded the organisation of Austria, and has had an enormous, though indirect, influence on the secondary schools of Switzerland and the Scandinavian countries. In England it has not only been investigated from somewhat different standpoints by such authorities as Matthew Arnold and Prof. Sadler, but has inspired many progressive English schoolmasters with the desire to adapt to our own usage certain of its administrative and teaching methods: its practice in the training of teachers, especially, and its modern-language work have already led, or are leading, to most salutary reforms in English schools. German organisation, in fact, and German method are equally suggestive whether they repel or attract the foreign student; in neither case can their results be neglected, or their developments cease to be closely followed, without serious loss; for the Germans apply science to this branch, as to every other, of their national life, and spare neither thought nor money in their determination to have schools that are the very best, at least, for their own land. And we shall be surprised at their success in getting so excellent a product at a relatively small cost.

History.—In the earlier Middle Ages, secondary schools in Germany, as in France and England, were under the control of the Church, whether in the form of monastery, or of cathedral and college, schools. From them, at the age of fifteen or before, the boy proceeded to one of the numerous Universities which sprang up from the beginning of the twelfth century, and was there placed in a *collegium* or *bursa* (private

establishment) in the charge of a Master of Arts. At the same period as the Universities, there arose a new type of school, principally at first in the larger towns—the city school, founded and administered by the town authorities, and encouraged by the higher Church officials, and giving much the same preliminary Latin instruction as the Church schools. With the Reformation began the great change. In Germany, Reform under Luther was happily yoked with Humanism and Melanchthon, and the result was shown in the new object put before the School—*sapiens atque eloquens pietas.* The *pietas* was pure Protestant doctrine; the *eloquentia*, training in *classical* Latin, and, in a lesser degree, Greek; the *sapientia*, the *artes* of rhetoric and dialectic, together with the *artes reales*, the rudiments of arithmetic, geometry, physics, cosmology, and music. Started first in Saxony, schools giving this type of instruction were either founded or adapted throughout the North of Germany, and can be divided into city schools (*Stadt-Schulen*) and State schools (*Staats-Schulen*), the latter being territorial schools, founded by the territorial prince, (*Landes-Schulen* or *Fürsten-Schulen*, or *Kloster-Schulen*, as they were sometimes called). These territorial schools mark at once the transfer of power from the Church to the Prince, who had become the head both of the Reformed Church and of the State, and the first recognition by the Government of education as a public duty. The most famous Fürsten-Schulen are Schulpforta, Meissen, and Grimma, established by Maurice of Saxony in 1543, out of the property of secularised convents, and educating 230 boys, free scholars, chosen by the towns, the nobles, and the Prince. Würtemberg followed the lead of Saxony, and in 1559 issued a *Schul-ordnung* that united every grade of education within a single State system, thus laying down the main principle of all succeeding developments in every German state. Meanwhile, for the Catholic countries in the south and west, the place of territorial schools was taken by the secondary schools set up by the Jesuits, who by 1600 had gained control over the lion's share of higher instruction in all the Roman Catholic countries in Europe, giving much the same formal training as the Protestant schools, only laying still greater emphasis on Latin as the language of an international Order, and less stress on Greek, since the Scriptures were not read by Catholics in the original. These Jesuit colleges survived until the Society was suspended in 1773, but their influence had long been on the wane, through the hostility they showed towards science and philosophy, the welcome given to which secured the supremacy of Protestantism. In its main lines,

however, the combination of Christianity and classical culture of a stylistic type was common to Protestant and Jesuit schools alike, through the seventeenth and part of the eighteenth centuries: both alike shut out the sciences and the modern languages and literatures, and both created a gulf between the educated classes who wrote and often spoke Latin, and the masses who used the vernacular. The result of this aloofness was the great impoverishment of German literature, in which there is not a single great name between Luther and Lessing. The same exclusiveness, too, united with the growing affectation of French customs and language on the part of German nobles in the establishment of *Ritter-Akademien*, or schools for nobles, all of which, as a class, disappeared in the nineteenth century, in some cases becoming Cadet schools, one or two developing into Universities. The Thirty Years' War had ruined many of the schools and Universities, and had depressed the middle classes while raising the nobility, who now withdrew their sons from the public schools, and either gave them a tutor at home or sent them to one of these fifteen Ritter-Academies, the aim of which was to form the *galant homme*, giving him a little Latin and much French, together with all the other knowledge, scientific and polite, that became a man of the world, and laying especial stress on such physical accomplishments as riding, fencing, dancing, and tennis. Like the territorial schools, the Ritter-Academies were boarding schools: the disappearance of such institutions for the moral training of youth during their riper years, somewhat after the manner of our public schools, is regretted by Prof. Paulsen.

The Origin of the Modern System.—The eighteenth century saw, however, a gradual broadening of the instruction all through the secondary schools of Germany. During its first half, the larger public schools began to combine the elements of the sciences and modern languages with the old classical course, rather, it is true, as "extras" than as obligatory subjects, though the great mass of smaller schools remained "high and dry" in their old curriculum. During its second half, the *Aufklärung*, or age of enlightenment, dawned on the Fatherland, through the inspiration drawn from Wolff, Lessing, Leibnitz, Winkelmann, Herder, Goethe; and the Neo-Humanism of this second and (for Germany) deeper Renaissance had a profound effect upon the schools. Above all, Greek leapt to the front rank of school studies, as the source of beauty and reason, and the Muses were no longer treated as subservient handmaids of Theology. Next, when Germany turned from appreciation of the pseudo-classicism

of French writers to the true source of all good style, the literature of Athens, she recovered a national self-respect, and with it a revived tenderness for her own mother-tongue, so long despised but now ennobled by the writings of so many illustrious philosophers and poets. Besides Greek, German was therefore given a place of honour in the school curriculum: the boy must not only be taught humaner letters, he must be a patriot. At the same time the French culture was attacked on social grounds; it had been distinctive of the nobles, and the rise of the middle classes in importance was tending to reduce such class distinctions, just as the spread of reason was replacing in Germany, as in France, the age of faith. So, with the beginning of the nineteenth century, the sons of the nobility return to the *Gymnasium*, there to receive, in common with the *bourgeoisie*, a national and comprehensive education. In the words of Paulsen[1]: "to encourage true self-culture, by replacing the old lifeless methods of teaching by a living and spontaneous reception of all that was most worth knowing, was the leading idea of the reorganisation of the schools. A living contact with classical antiquity was to rouse the susceptible minds of the young, whose wills and feelings are readily engaged, to a higher level of human culture. At the same time it was needful that their minds should be opened to mathematical and natural science, the latest of the great achievements of the human intellect." In order to secure these ends two things were necessary: (1) the comprehension of different grades and types of schools within a single system under the management of the State, which now included the provision of intellectual training for all its citizens in the list of its primary duties; (2) the regulation both of courses of study and qualifications of teachers, so as to secure the best instruction in the subjects most fitted for the production of *καλοκαγαθός*. As we have seen, the State had long been recognised as supreme in education, but it had hitherto chiefly exercised its powers through clerical consistories. In Prussia the great administrative change was made under William von Humboldt, who became head of the State Department of Religion and Public Instruction in 1809. New provincial authorities were now placed in direct connection with the Education Department, which exercised its control through their mediation: a searching examination was established for testing teachers, thereby making them qualified members of an independent profession, instead of being, as generally

[1] *German Education, Past and Present*, translated by Lorenz (Fisher Unwin), p. 197.

hitherto, clergymen waiting for a living; while the classical schools, which were selected to prepare for the newly organised Universities, were given the uniform title of *Gymnasien*, were subjected to a common leaving-examination, and were guided by a *Lehrplan*, or prescribed course of study, whereof the four chief subjects were Latin, Greek, German, and Mathematics, and the subsidiary subjects, History, Geography, Religious Instruction, and Natural Science. These reforms were imitated more or less closely by the other German States, though Central and Southern Germany long retained a more one-sided classical curriculum. Lastly, since 1834, the Leaving-Examination (*Abiturienten-Examen*) has been made the sole entrance-gate to the learned professions in Prussia, and the all-importance of the school course has thereby been secured.

Rise and Development of Different Types of School.—It is impossible to trace in this chapter the various changes which have taken place in German Secondary Education during the last hundred years: however instructive their history may be, they have not affected the main lines of organisation laid down by von Humboldt, but have rather been revisions of curricula and adaptations to the changing needs of successive periods. The Gymnasium, for instance, reflected the reactionary tendencies of the mid-nineteenth century in an attempt, under Wiese, to return to the ideal of Melanchthon, religion and formal classical training being emphasised at the expense of the "realities," and the "all-round" education, which, by the standard exacted in all subjects, had proved over-burdensome, being abandoned. At the same time a "realistic" gymnasium, or semi-classical type of school (*Realgymnasium*) received recognition in 1859, the *Einheitschule*, or common school of preparation for all professions, thereby definitely and finally giving place to a dualistic system of education. In 1882 the Gymnasium proper reverted in a measure to its ideal of an "all-round" training, its Latin being curtailed, and in 1892, owing to the Kaiser's speech at the 1890 Conference, this tendency was carried still further, Latin dropping to sixty-two hours per week (in all classes added together), whereas it had been allowed eighty-six in 1875 and seventy-seven even in 1882, The Latin essay disappeared, and greater stress was laid on German (which became the principal examination-test) and on physical exercises. The final reform took place in 1901, when the Gymnasium was for the first time made to abandon its monopoly as a preparation school for the Universities, the semi-classical school (*Realgymnasium*) and the non-classical

school (*Oberrealschule*), of the same length of course, being admitted to share its privileges. But there has been adequate compensation in the facility now afforded the Gymnasium to concentrate its energies, to some extent, on its own subject, the Latin hours being raised to sixty-eight, while the University candidates in more modern subjects are encouraged to resort to the other schools, though the classical school still carries such a preponderance of social weight that it continues to attract elements which would be more in place elsewhere. The half-classical and non-classical schools are the natural developments of the old grammar schools which were not selected as *Gymnasien* in 1812, in the direction of supplying the educational needs of a rapidly growing middle class, by eliminating Greek, if not Latin, and by extending the teaching of modern languages and science. In 1832 they were recognised by being provided with an intermediate Leaving Examination (*Abschlussprüfung*) at the end of the sixth year, which conferred the privilege of serving one year in the army instead of two (*Zulassung zum einjährigen freiwilligen Militairdienst*), and gave access to appointments in the post-office, the forest department, and, if Latin was taken, to architecture. In 1859 they were divided into two classes: the *Realschule I. Ordnung*, with a nine-years' course, including Latin, which received the title of *Realgymnasium* in 1882; while the *Realschule II. Ordnung*, with originally a shorter and more varied course, and largely dependent upon local authorities, was split up in 1882 into two types, the Latinless Realschule with a nine-years' course being called *Oberrealschule*, and the simple term *Realschule* being confined to the Latinless school with a six-years' course. The degree of privilege to be given these schools has been the subject of much conflict; but we have seen that since 1901 all schools with a nine-years' course open the same gates, except that a Gymnasium training is still required by the Theological Faculty, and that the Oberrealschule student is excluded from pursuing medical studies. And it should be noticed that candidates for Modern Language teaching must show some knowledge of Latin, and future History masters ability to understand Greek and Latin historical works.

It will be seen that the main trend of secondary school development has been towards the increasing recognition of the utility of three distinct types, the classical, the semi-classical, and the modern school, leading to the growth of the latter in popularity, and the equalisation of the length of course in each of the three classes. The old Realschule has been split up into (1) the nine-years' Realgymnasium with

Latin (a hybrid type, denounced by the Kaiser, but more and more favoured by the towns); (2) the nine-years' Oberrealschule; and (3) the six-years' Realschule—the last two being without Latin. There are also in many towns six-years' course Gymnasien and Realgymnasien, bearing the same relation to the nine-years' schools as the Realschule to the Oberrealschule, and called *Progymnasien* and *Realprogymnasien*: all alike lead to the *Abschlussprüfung*, which confers the one-year's service certificate; while the complete schools conduct as well to the *Reifeprüfung*, or certificate of maturity for University study. It should be noticed that the institution of the Abschlussprüfung in the complete schools has led to many boys leaving two-thirds of the way through their course, as soon as they have won the coveted certificate, which not only exempts from half the military service, but confers a higher status in the ranks, and is also recognised as a qualification for entrance into all good business houses.

Administrative Authorities: (1) The Education Department.—Let us now turn to consider the administrative system which controls these various secondary schools. In the smaller German states there is usually a single central board, acting directly upon the whole school-system; it will therefore be better to consider the case of Prussia, which is compelled by its size to delegate its power to semi-independent provincial boards, and thereby offers more suggestive analogies to our English practice. At the head of the whole organism is the Minister for Religious, Educational, and Medicinal Affairs, responsible only to the Crown, guided by precedent, the final court of appeal, appointing officials, conferring titles upon teachers, and ratifying their appointment and promotion, except where this right has been given to other authorities. Of his three departments, that for Education is in charge of an Under-Secretary, assisted by two directors (*Referenten*) and by nineteen special counsellors (*Vortragende-Räte*). The Education Department is divided into two sections, one dealing with elementary, normal, and girls' schools, and with schools for defective children; the other confining itself to higher education, whether in boys' schools or in the Universities. So much for the central authority.

(2) Provincial School Boards.—The immediate supervision over secondary schools is entrusted to thirteen Provincial School Boards (*Provinzial-Schulkollegien*), one administering each province. The chairman of this School Board is the *Oberpräsident* of the Provincial Government, while its other members are from three to five inspectors

(*Provinzial-Schulräte*) chosen by the Crown from the ranks of distinguished headmasters, and dividing amongst themselves the supervision of the Gymnasien, of the Realschulen, and of the Volkschulen, or elementary schools. The provincial board controls building-plans, school regulations, text-books, leaving-examinations, the appointment and dismissal of teachers, except headmasters, and generally superintends the schools. It issues a full report to the Government every three years, and yearly and half-yearly reports on matters of detail, such as the financial condition of the schools and the success of trial-teachers. The examination of these teachers, as we shall mention elsewhere,[1] is entrusted to expert bodies, the *Wissenschaftliche Prüfungs-Kommissionen*, the ten to twenty members of each of which are nominated for one year by the Crown, and which sit in the different University towns. The General Superintendent of the Evangelical Church in each province, or the Catholic Bishop, as the case may be, has to visit every secondary school in his district once in six years and report on its religious condition.

The Provincial School Board, then, is the representative of the State in the different districts of Prussia. It has complete control over schools of which the State is whole, or part, patron, both in respect to *interna*, teaching and curricula, and *externa*, buildings and equipment. In tracing the history of German schools we saw how *Stadtschulen*, or City schools, were differentiated from *Staatsschulen*, or State schools. The tendency of the State has been to take over the complete control of the Gymnasien, whether by direct foundation or by supplementing the endowment, and, even in the case of the few self-supporting endowed schools, the same right is exercised, in a somewhat modified form, since the Government considers it its duty to see that endowments are properly applied. Considerably more than half of the secondary schools are therefore under the complete or partial patronage of the State, the majority of them belonging to the category of Gymnasien. The rest, especially the Real-gymnasien and the Realschulen, have, with the permission of the Government, been built by the city authorities, who sometimes, however, prefer to establish a Gymnasium in order to enhance the social position of a particular district. The city has to prove the need for every new school, to undertake its support, and to submit building-plans to the provincial architect.

(3) Local Boards.—Partial control over such municipal schools is in the hands of Local Boards, *Schuldeputationen*,

[1] See p. 252.

generally consisting of a few members of the town council, including the Mayor, who is appointed by the State, an equal number of elected members, and, often, a paid *Stadtschulrat*, or city inspector of schools.[1] These Local Boards, like the trustees of specially endowed schools, can choose the type of school they want, nominate teachers, subject to State approval, manage school property, and regulate tuition-fees and free scholarships. But if a school is under joint city and Crown patronage, when both bear the expense, the Local Board must share this external administration with State officials. Of course, in all internal regulations, as well as possessing the right to veto the measures taken by the town as regards *externa*, the State, acting through the provincial school-board, remains the direct and sole authority. It also draws up the official list from which the headmaster and teachers must be selected, and insists that the town scale of salaries shall be at least as good as the State scale, with as undisputed a claim as that by which it retains absolute control over curricula and teaching-methods. It even obliges the town to provide pensions for its teachers, just as it makes provision for its own masters, and has the right to enforce all financial obligations on the part of the city by a special assessment of city property in case of failure. But there is rarely need to resort to such measures; the municipalities generally pay even higher salaries than the State, and willingly spend £50,000 on building a secondary school. At Cologne, we read, a single school of this type costs the town £8,000 a year; to quote the words of its *Direktor*, or Headmaster, "Whatever I want, I may have. I spend £60 yearly on additions to our natural history collection alone."[2]

Private Schools.—As for private-venture schools, they exist indeed; but, with the exception of boarding schools for foreigners, and such excellent educational experiments as the Stoy School at Jena, they can hardly be said to flourish. The German parent nearly always prefers a public day school for his son, and private day schools are as a rule preparatory for the public schools and are organised as Progymnasien. In any case their standard is sufficiently guaranteed by State regulation. The appointment of masters is confirmed by the provincial school board, and they are paid much the same salary as in the public schools. Private ventures must prove that they supply a need, and must

[1] This official has no right to inspect the school work: his sphere, also, is confined to *externa*.

[2] Board of Education Special Reports, vol. ix. p. 408.

receive State recognition as to adequate equipment and proper course of study, the latter, together with the teaching-methods employed, being regularly reported on to the State authorities. If they prepare for the leaving-certificates, they must submit their pupils to public examinations, conducted by a provincial school-inspector. Germans stand amazed at our English *laisser-faire* way of permitting unqualified charlatans to thrive on public ignorance. To them education is one of the most important things in life, and one that demands to be most carefully safeguarded.

A Typical Prussian School.—Now that we have seen how very effectively the State, in Prussia and other parts of Germany alike, controls, by its administration, the system of national education, giving by no means a free hand to the local authorities even in the external management of the schools which they support, and no voice at all in the ordering of the teaching and curriculum, except in a few cases such as the Berlin Realschulen, which we shall discuss later, let us turn to consider the life in an average Prussian secondary school: but for variation of curriculum, we shall find little difference between the Gymnasium and the Oberrealschule; and a State school is only distinguishable from a City school by having its expenses met from different sources. Again, a school in Prussia is practically the same as a school of the same type in another German state: in almost every case it will be a day school, and one as well adapted to its purpose as the progress of human ingenuity can make it. Let us suppose it to be housed in a modern building; as a rule we shall find it to have an imposing stone front, rising to the height of four storeys, with four class-rooms on each storey, almost always facing the north, and very large, light, and well-ventilated these rooms have to be. The entrance-hall is nearly always beautiful and impressive, with a marble staircase fronting the door. The building is arranged on each storey on the corridor plan, the class-rooms facing the north, while to the south are the other rooms, such as libraries, chart-room, masters' room, headmaster's room, museum, laboratories, conference room, and, above all, the pride of the school, the *Aula*, or large hall in which the older boys assemble for prayers, decorated with frescoes and mural tablets, in commemoration of pious benefactors and former pupils who have died in battle or won great distinction. An organ, grand piano, and stained-glass windows are nearly always to be found, and the love of old boys and masters alike is bestowed on making the Aula noble and beautiful. The corridors are generally decorated with

pictures and busts of German writers, and of Shakespeare, as well as with rows of coats and caps, and in the class-room we shall inevitably see the Imperial portraits. In the basement will be a boys' library, always excellent and comprehensive; and, more suggestive for English schools, an admirable masters' library is always provided, in the masters' room or elsewhere, especially strong in books (which are read) dealing with every aspect of education. The cost of both libraries is met by subscriptions from the State or City, and by a special library fund, liberally supported by friends of the school and old boys. The *Turn Halle*, or Gymnasium, is, as a rule, an annex to the main building, and it is part of the regular curriculum for every boy to spend three hours a week in using its singularly complete equipment, his form-master often being his instructor. Lastly, there is the playground, often planted with trees and always provided with a pump. Those who have seen them will agree that the newer German schools at least strike the three notes of modest and appropriate beauty, of careful adaptation to end, and of absolute cleanliness. And there is, let it be remembered, hardly any difference made in the equipment of a primary and of a secondary school; so determined are the Germans, as are the Americans, to secure the best conditions for the education of their children, as far as these depend upon material installation.

"Vorschulen."—School life in Germany begins at six, and the secondary course starts at nine years of age. So specialised has this course become, apart from the admirable Frankfort Reform of its earlier stages, of which we shall speak below, that there is an increasing tendency to educate little boys between the ages of six and nine in public preparatory schools (*Vorschulen*), attached to the several types of school and giving an elementary education carefully adapted to the succeeding course. In the secondary school itself we shall find boys varying between nine and eighteen, or over, if it gives the complete course, or between nine and sixteen if it is a Progymnasium or Realschule.

Characteristics of German Boys.—The condition of the boys, as boys, and not as future thinkers, can hardly be considered satisfactory to one used to English customs. They have not yet taken kindly to our games, which the authorities are trying to introduce, and they seem to grow old and serious more quickly than can be good for them. Their work is still too heavy, and, however important it may be, made far too much the be-all and end-all of boy life. It is admirable that parents should take an intense interest in their

boy's progress, and understand the nature of his studies, as is nearly always the case in Germany, and it is good that State examinations, carefully adapted to the work of the school, should act as a stimulus, even if it be allowed that the granting of the privileges attached to these examinations is dubious education; but it is wholly bad that a boy should not be allowed to enjoy and realise his boyhood, and it is execrable that so many cases of boy-suicide should still arise from overwork and overworry.[1]

Discipline.—The discipline in German schools is generally excellent, both because many of the younger masters are officers in the army and carry military manners into the class-room, and much more because of the natural proneness of German boys to be orderly and obedient. One would prefer, however, to see a little more animal spirit, even at the expense of automatic discipline and military tone. It may be added that, although corporal punishment is within the power of every master of the lower forms, it is rarely inflicted, and the wicked old custom of incarceration in cells is happily dying out. Warnings and occasional detentions are, as a rule, quite sufficient to check offences, and the conditions of suspension and expulsion are carefully prescribed.

Out-of-school Life.—The out-of-school life of the boys is under school control to some extent, and parents are neither allowed to interfere with their son's studies nor to keep him at home except for illness, nor even to remove him from his school merely because they disapprove of its regulations. Boys who do not live at home must live in approved families or boarding-houses; and no boys may frequent bars, absent themselves from church on Sunday, form societies, or publish school journals. On the other hand, boys above the four lowest classes are allowed to smoke, though not in public. So careful is the State to secure conformity to a proper standard of citizenship on the part of its youth; and, although it may seem to us that Germans belong body and soul to the State, they rather feel that the State belongs to them, and recognise that the individual can only secure the advantages afforded him at the fair price of a great measure of social conformity.

The Method of appointing Masters.—Turning from the boys to their masters, we will begin by saying that we shall deal elsewhere with their excellent professional training and rate of payment.[2] All alike are permitted to teach only after

[1] In a single period of four years, previous to 1889, 300 boys and 409 girls under fifteen committed suicide.

[2] See pp. 238,251-256.

their efficiency has been tested by a trial year, or *Probejahr*. Their probation satisfactorily over, they put their names on the official list of candidates for vacancies, and since, if the combination of subjects in which they are qualified is in little demand, they may have to wait many years for an appointment, and in any case are likely to wait a considerable time, they often take a post as assistant teacher (*Hilfslehrer*) at a salary of about £75 a year, or undertake private tuition or literary work until their nomination is made. The positions in City schools are more quickly secured, and generally better paid, than in State schools; but, although the security is equal in either case, the dignity of State service is greater, and hence many teachers prefer to wait longer for a vacancy in a State school, which is always filled by seniority on the official list, rather than disqualify for that list by accepting a City-school appointment which can be given to any one on the list, whatever his order. The crowded condition of the teaching profession in Germany proves its desirability, but at the same time results in much delay before a man can begin his life's work. He is rarely under thirty, and occasionally nearer forty, before he secures a State appointment: fortunately, when once he is nominated, his troubles are over, and he has entered upon a career socially esteemed, adequately remunerated, and absolutely secure. A master's first post will generally be among the less desirable in the school to which he is attached, since the original vacancy will have been filled by a more experienced man, from the same staff or transferred from another school in the same province. Omitting the *Hilfslehrer*, and also the teachers of special subjects and the *Reallehrer*, who are primary teachers of elementary classes, we get three grades of "fully-covenanted" secondary schoolmasters in Germany.

The "Oberlehrer," "Professor," and "Direktor."—These grades are: (1) the *Oberlehrer*, or ordinary master: (2) the *Professor*, generally a senior master, who, since 1890, has been given by the Minister the honorary title of a University professor, a title to which a third of every staff may aspire: (3) the *Direktor*, or headmaster, who, on the advice of the provincial inspector, is appointed, in State schools, directly by the Crown, and in City schools has to be approved of by the provincial authorities. A Direktor usually makes his *début* in a small provincial school, and will be considerably advanced in years before he becomes chief of an important State, or even City, school: he is installed by the inspector at a public ceremony, and becomes one of the hardest-worked men in Germany, continuing to teach a minimum of twelve hours a

week, being made entirely responsible for his school, supervising teachers, instructing probationers, settling disputes, interviewing and writing to parents, sending reports and returns to the provincial board, and usually remaining through it all a courteous, kindly, and cultured gentleman. He is like the best type of English headmaster, both in his capacity for work and in his lack of clerical assistance.

The "Ordinarius."—The Direktor's only salvation from speedy dissolution lies in the custom of delegating authority to the *Ordinarius*, or Form Master of each class, as a rule, though not always, the teacher who takes it the greatest number of hours. The *Ordinarius* is appointed with the approval of the provincial board, acts as intermediary between boy and Direktor, and holds the position of tutor to all the boys in his form, receiving reports from colleagues, getting to know the boys' parents, keeping an eye on his flock in school and out, and nearly always fulfilling these important duties conscientiously and well. However much the other masters may exemplify the ordinary Continental pattern, and be teachers pure and simple, the *Ordinarius*, at least, often shows the warm personal interest and pastoral insight which is the best tradition of English schoolmasters, and which may be allowed to cover a multitude of intellectual shortcomings. Only, the German *Ordinarius* adds this faithful shepherding to a didactic ability equal to any in the world.

Teachers' Hours and Duties.—As for the number of hours of service per week, German teachers compare well with their English, and badly with their French, colleagues. Special teachers give twenty-six hours' instruction a week, *Hilfslehrer* twenty-four, *Oberlehrer* twenty-two, and *Professoren* usually twenty; but all are liable to extra work, without, as in France, extra remuneration. The teachers are expected to watch over their pupils' health, to prepare their lessons carefully and mark their exercises regularly, to consult the Direktor before undertaking any private work and the provincial board before venturing to marry, and, above all, to refrain from political controversy and pamphlet-writing. It will be noticed that French masters, though equally Civil servants, are bound by none of these last petty regulations, which therefore are not inevitable to any Government organisation of the teaching profession, but only characteristic of the tendency of Germany in particular to excessive red-tape and *tracasserie*. As a matter of fact they do not amount to much in practice, any more than a teacher's liability to reproof from his colleagues sitting in congress, or to be fined, suspended, and dismissed,

amounts to more than the knowledge that in certain directions danger lies, though no one ever runs into it. The professional honour of German masters is sufficient to make all penalties practically a dead letter.

German System of Forms.—Let us now consider the object of all this elaborate organisation, the instruction, which is so esteemed in Germany and which has produced so high a level of intellectual ability in the professions and in commerce alike. At the outset we are struck by a sharp contrast with our own individualistic and specialistic tendencies in Education. In England terminal or half-yearly moves from form to form are common, and in many subjects the boys are regrouped in sets. In Germany, as in France, the unit is always a year's course, and the same boys are taught together in all subjects, the object being to give a very thorough and high average level of knowledge in many subjects, rather than a specialised ability in one or two to the comparative neglect of the rest; and to provide for all boys in each class a complete foundation for the instruction that is to follow after, rather than to push on the able boy to the top of the school with all speed. There is plenty to be said in favour of both principles, and, by the latest reforms, Germany allows more specialisation, both to each type of school, and, in the top forms, to the individual boy, excellence in those subjects for which he has the most taste being allowed to compensate for a lower standard in branches in which he is naturally weak. However, the yearly principle still holds the field, all boys who are marked "satisfactory" being moved up, the rest "redoubling" the class. In all nine-years' schools the forms are named as follows, beginning with the lowest (for boys of nine): *Sexta* (sixth), *Quinta* (fifth), *Quarta* (fourth), *Unter-Tertia* (lower third), *Ober-Tertia* (upper third), *Unter-Sekunda* (lower second), *Ober-Sekunda* (upper second), *Unter-Prima* (lower first), *Ober-Prima* (upper first). In six-years' schools the forms are simply Sexta, Quinta, Quarta, Tertia, Sekunda, Prima, again, of course, counting from the bottom upwards. The nature of the studies in the different types of school will, perhaps, be best seen by observing the hours per week allotted to each subject by the 1901 Regulations. We take the tables from Prof. Sadler's invaluable article in the ninth volume of Special Reports (pp. 175-177).

Each lesson lasts fifty minutes. Homework is not included in these tables. The brackets indicate that the number of lessons may, if desired, be redistributed from time to time between the subjects enclosed in the bracket.

The New Prussian Time Tables

A. TIME TABLE FOR GYMNASIEN (CLASSICAL SCHOOLS WITH A NINE YEARS' COURSE)

	VI.	V.	IV.	III. B	III. A	II. B	II. A	I. B	I. A
Religion	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Mother-tongue and Historical Narration	3 / 1 = 4	2 / 1 = 3	3	2	2	3	3	3	3
Latin	8	8	8	8	8	7	7	7	7
Greek	—	—	—	6	6	6	6	6	6
French	—	—	4	2	2	3	3	3	3
History	—	—	2	2	2	2	3	3	3
Geography	2	2	2	1	1	1	—	—	—
Mathematics	4	4	4	3	3	4	4	4	4
Natural Science	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Writing	2	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Drawing	—	2	2	2	2	—	—	—	—
Total	25	25	29	30	30	30	30	30	30
Physical Training	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Singing	2	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

B. TIME TABLE FOR REALGYMNASIEN (SEMI-CLASSICAL SCHOOLS WITH A NINE YEARS' COURSE)

	VI.	V.	IV.	III. B	III. A	II. B	II. A	I. B	I. A
Religion	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Mother-tongue and Historical Narration	3 / 1 = 4	2 / 1 = 3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Latin	8	8	7	5	5	4	4	4	4
French	—	—	5	4	4	4	4	4	4
English	—	—	—	3	3	3	3	3	3
History	—	—	2	2	2	2	3	3	3
Geography	2	2	2	2	2	1	—	—	—
Mathematics	4	4	4	5	5	5	5	5	5
Natural Science	2	2	2	2	2	4	5	5	5
Writing	2	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Drawing	—	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Total	25	25	29	30	30	30	31	31	31
Physical Training	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Singing	2	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

C. TIME TABLE FOR OBERREALSCHULEN (NON-CLASSICAL SCHOOLS WITH A NINE YEARS' COURSE)

	VI.	V.	IV.	III. B	III. A	II. B	II. A	I. B	I. A
Religion	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Mother-tongue and Historical Narration	4 / 1 } 5	3 / 1 } 4	4	3	3	3	4	4	4
French	6	6	6	6	6	5 }	4 }	4 }	4 }
English	—	—	—	5	4	4 }	4 }	4 }	4 }
History	—	—	3	2	2	2	3	3	3
Geography	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1
Mathematics	5	5	6	6	5	5	5	5	5
Natural Science	2	2	2	2	4	6	6	6	6
Writing	2	2	2	—	—	—	—	—	—
Freehand Drawing	—	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Total	25	25	29	30	30	30	31	31	31
Physical Training	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Singing	2	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

The Lesson of these Time Tables.—The Progymnasien, Realprogymnasien and Realschulen, with a few important exceptions, where an altered programme is permitted, follow the above time tables for the first six years. The most striking thing which these tables reveal to the English student is the stress laid upon linguistic training, whether in Classics or Modern Languages, and upon literary culture, as the indispensable basis of all education in every type of secondary school. The Germans are convinced that scientific specialisation is impossible without this basis, which has taught the boy self-expression and the connection of ideas. The proof is that business houses always choose boys who have had this general training, and often prefer Gymnasiasts; while the excellent scientific research at the Universities is a sufficient justification of the wisdom shown in postponing technical study until a solid humanistic education is complete. It is true there is now a tendency to a more general use of the laboratories for science teaching, and in some parts to develop manual training; but, as a rule, the science instruction is chiefly theoretical, illustrated by experiments conducted with very perfect apparatus. Many leading authorities, like Paulsen, think, however, that a much more practical education should be organised for a certain type of boy who lacks all linguistic ability; and it is likely that schools will move in this direction, while retaining their present features for the great majority of pupils. With

regard to the various subjects it is only possible to say here a few hasty words.

Salient Features of German Instruction.—The teaching of the *Mother-tongue* is now excellent. Great attention is given to training in expression, both in speech and writing, and the reading is carefully adapted to the different classes, at the top of the school providing the matter for the examination of important general ideas, that may help on, or prove a substitute for, the introductory course in Philosophy which is likely to be introduced into Prima, since the subject is less read than formerly at the Universities, and since no education can be complete without it. *Latin*: The object in the Gymnasium is: "On the sure basis of grammatical training to enable boys to understand the more important classical authors of Rome, and thus to introduce them to the intellectual life and culture of the ancient world." The aim in the Realgymnasium is, of course, less ambitious. In both schools less stress is laid on composition and the unnecessary detail of grammar than on the reading of authors with understanding; composition is generally done in school, after the piece has been gone through orally. Germans consider it uneducational to allow a boy even to see a written mistake, if it can be avoided, since he is prone rather to remember the mistake than the correction. *Greek:* The teaching aims at giving boys an insight into the intellectual life and culture of Ancient Greece. Composition is practically abandoned, but stress is laid upon written translation, on memorising passages, and, above all, on reading. As the *Lehrplan* runs: "Based on a thorough grammatical knowledge, the instruction must aim at revealing to the pupils the train of thought and artistic form of the work which they are reading, both as a whole and in its various parts."[1] *Modern Languages:* Here the Direct Method, applied with discretion, has borne admirable fruit. The pronunciation is perfected with the greatest care, and all classes must have conversational lessons, though grammatical difficulties are explained in German. To the reading great importance is assigned, only books of literary quality being allowed, except in scientific schools; the object being to introduce the boys to the culture as well as to the customs of the foreign nation. Unless, too, the teacher and taught are up to a high standard, the translation of texts into good German may not be replaced by a discussion of the content in the foreign tongue. Grammar, though subordinated to reading, is systematically taught, and much use is made of free composition. It is to

[1] Mr. J. L. Paton has written a monograph on the teaching of the Classics in Prussia, for a forthcoming volume of Special Reports.

be noted that English may be substituted for French in the three top forms of the Gymnasium, and that all through Prussia schools are authorised by a recent decree to replace French by English as the chief language; this has already been done in one or two cases. *History and Geography:* These subjects are generally taught by the same master, and interconnected as much as possible. History teaching aims at "giving a knowledge of the epoch-making events of universal history, especially of German and Prussian history, together with their causes and effects, and at developing the historical instinct." Stress is laid on principles rather than on facts, although important facts are committed to memory; while the thorny instruction in the economic and social problems of to-day is given in an ethical and historical spirit. Geography, though chiefly political, is not neglected on its physical side, and map-drawing and the rudiments of mathematical geography are taught. *Mathematics* are "to provide such a training of the intellect, as will enable the pupil to apply correctly in independent work the ideas and knowledge which he has gained." *Natural Science:* The Notes of Method run: "In the instruction in natural science the acquisition of a number of separate items of information, however valuable for ordinary life, is not an end in itself, but only a means to the promotion of general culture. The pupil is to learn to use his senses rightly, and to describe correctly what he has observed; he is to gain an insight into the regular sequence of natural phenomena, and into the importance of these natural laws for every-day life; he is also to be brought to understand, as far as is possible in the school, the means by which man has attained, and can attain, a knowledge of these laws. A larger place in this instruction is to be given to observation and experiment."

Moderate Uniformity no Tyranny.—These few comments on, and extracts from,[1] the latest programmes will perhaps sufficiently show the reader the spirit of German instruction as laid down in the official regulations. And it is important to notice that the *Lehrplan*, like the French *Plan d'Études*, by no means limits the play of individuality on the part of the teacher, within proper bounds. He is allowed great freedom both in the arrangement of his time-table and in the choice of books; but he is not allowed, as in England, to give an isolated course, unconnected with the work of the rest of the school, and conducted according to his own ideas. Continental teachers are helped and guided by the best expert advice,

[1] For the translation we are indebted to Mr. Twentyman's article in vol. ix. of the Special Reports, pp. 193, *seq.*

and, in spite of their qualifications, are not considered to possess sufficient inspiration to dispense with orderly method and mutual co-operation. But, at the same time, the rope is loose enough never to chafe the individual teacher in the detail of his work. If it were too tight, it would be broken, and official regulations must prove their worth, if they are to be willingly followed by a great professional body with a strong *esprit de corps*. The fact that complaints against these regulations are rare both in France and Germany is the best proof of their technical excellence and of their liberal spirit. We lay stress upon this because English opponents of State control confuse uniformity with tyranny. Moderate uniformity in the practice of good teaching is rather the condition of national efficiency: up to now we too have had a very general uniformity, but it has been a uniformity of ignorance and dulness.

School Hours and Home Work.—With regard to the division of the school-day, the general custom is that school-hours are from 7 to 11 a.m. in the summer, and 8 a.m. to 12 noon in the winter, with an afternoon session of from 3 to 5, except on Wednesdays and Saturdays. Little boys as a rule come an hour later than the rest, and at least forty minutes of the day are given up to breaks, including fifteen minutes after every second hour. Afternoon work is, however, in some quarters much disliked; and certain schools tend, more or less often during the week, to extend the morning hours to five, in order further to curtail the afternoon work, or, in other cases, to have more afternoons entirely free. Homework is now officially limited to a maximum of thirty to forty minutes a day in *Vorschulen*, of one hour in Sexta and Quinta, two hours in Quarta and Unter-Tertia, two hours and a half in Ober-Tertia and Unter-Sekunda, and three for the top of the school.

Reformschulen.—Before leaving the subject of curricula, we must mention the rise of *Reformschulen*, which are viewed favourably by the Government, and seem destined to solve successfully many problems in German Education. We have seen that the principal feature of the ordinary type of secondary instruction in Germany is its tendency to specialise, within limits, from the age of nine, and even to encourage a specially adapted elementary course in the *Vorschule*.[1] The consequence has been that not only has a boy, or his father, had to choose his career before his bent could be discovered, by selecting, and then *compulsorily remaining in*, one of the three main types of school,

[1] In the summer of 1904, there were 10,975 boys in Vorschulen attached to classical schools, 4,208 in semi-classical Vorschulen, and 9,716 in non-classical.

but it has been made very difficult to correlate primary and secondary education. Except in Berlin, where there are no *Vorschulen*, very few pupils in the Secondary Schools have come through the *Volkschule*; and, again except in Berlin, and that only in the Realschule, where French is deferred till Quarta, and boys can therefore join at eleven or twelve, it is necessary to leave the Volkschule at nine, if one desires a secondary education. Hence the development of the higher elementary types of school, called the *Mittelschule* and *Höhere Bürgerschule*, giving an excellent education, but perpetuating class distinctions. One way to break down the barrier is the inclusion of French in the primary school curriculum; the other way is that adopted by the Berlin Realschulen, the postponing of French inside the Secondary School. The democratic tendency of Germany is likely to go on bridging the gulf by one means or another, lest a future Paulsen or Virchow, both of whom began their studies in *Volkschulen*, should be lost to the nation; and the spread of the *Reformschulen* will help in the same direction. Briefly, the Reform-schools, which are in reputation especially connected with the towns of Altona and Frankfort, where they started, aim at deferring Latin as late as possible, and at teaching it through a previous knowledge of French; by this means the ideal of an *Einheitschule*, or "common" school, is realised for the three lowest forms, since Latin is not started till Unter-Tertia, whereas French is begun in Sexta. Greek, in the Reform-Gymnasium, and English in the Reform-Realgymnasium, are begun two years later. The argument is, and it is surely right, that a boy learns a hard language much more quickly, if he does not begin it until his mind is less unformed, and then devotes more hours to the subject. Intension rather than extension of effort, within limits, is held to be educationally sound, as well as socially expedient by delaying premature specialisation. Up to now, though Reformed Schools have a common foundation of non-classical education, after which the boy chooses a classical or semi-classical course, the Real-gymnasium and the Gymnasium remain separate buildings under different headmasters. The probable development will be towards union in the same building of all three types of school, or rather of three branches of study, starting from a common basis and branching off later on. Since there are already optional courses of Latin at the top of the Oberreal-schule, it is only needful to begin them earlier to assimilate the Semi-classical and Non-classical school; and the Classical and Semi-classical, in turn, could easily be given an identical course up to the age of fourteen. As class-feeling grows less

strong, it seems certain that the common school, the *Einheitschule*, will thrive again in Germany; only it will no longer impose the same programme on all alike as did the old privileged Gymnasium, but will resemble the French *lycée* in giving, within the same building, a common earlier, and a specialised later, training, adapted to the individual, while conferring equal social rank, and recognised by equally valuable sanctions.

Number and Population of German Schools.—The development of Prussian Secondary Schools can best be seen by the list that Paulsen gives in *German Education, Past and Present*, p. 227. There existed in Prussia:

	Gymnasien	Pro-gymnasien	Real-gymnasien	Realpro-gymnasien	Oberreal-schulen	Real-schulen
In the year 1835	112	24	(12)	—	—	—
„ 1855	124	28	(54)	—	—	—
„ 1875	228	33	80	91	—	17
„ 1885	259	38	89	86	14	36
„ 1895	273	45	86	74	24	73
„ 1905	324	39	100	27	50	158
Number of boys over 9 end of summer, 1904	94,853	4,441	26,111	2,678	20,591	35,746

In 1902, we learn from Lexis, there were in all the Higher Schools of Germany 301,887 boys, of whom 174,467 were in Prussia. They were distributed as follows: in the Gymnasien 144,673 boys, and in the Progymnasien 9,007; in the Realgymnasien 39,077, and in the Realprogymnasien 3,418; in the Oberrealschulen 31,707, and in the Realschulen 74,005. Prof. Sadler states (Essex Report, p. 7) that in Prussia in 1900 (population 34,472,509) the proportion of boys attending the Higher Schools, all over nine years, was 5·44 per 1,000 of the whole population. About the same time there were probably about 170,000 boys in nominal receipt of secondary instruction in England, out of a population of, say, 35,000,000. The only difference was that every Prussian boy was receiving a real, efficient secondary education, at the hands of fully qualified teachers, and staying, in two cases out of three, to the age of sixteen or seventeen, in the third to the age of eighteen or twenty; whereas most of the English boys were being badly taught by unqualified teachers in schools which, even when they were not private academies, gave rather elementary than secondary instruction, and nearly all English boys left school long before they were sixteen. In Prussia secondary education is a guaranteed, standardised article; in England it is still, for the most part, *verbum et præterea nihil.*

Cost.—As to the cost of these schools, we may take as typical

Prussia's bill in 1902. Upon her 652 Higher Schools there was spent in all £2,512,456, of which £2,129,032 was devoted to salaries and remunerations. The expense was covered by State grants amounting to £625,824, by Local grants amounting to £748,035, by £72,581 from endowments and foundations, and by £1,066,015 from school-fees, etc. The total cost per boy is therefore about £14 7*s.*, of which the parent contributes an average of £6. We take from Russell[1] the following (1893–4) balance sheet for 11 Realschulen, with 162 regular and 51 special teachers, supported by the Municipality of Berlin:

	Marks.	Marks.
Ordinary Expenses	608,427	
Income from school-fees	295,788	
Deficit		312,639
Extraordinary Expenses:		
Salaries of special teachers		43,188
Caretakers		10,750
Supply teachers		1,408
Teachers of religion for non-Protestants		1,200
Printing annual announcements		2,569
Building and repairs		12,218
Teachers of gymnastics		23,564
Total expense to city		407,536 (£20,376)

Fees and Scholarships.—By the Prussian Ministerial Rescript of 1892, the fees are fixed as follows for State Schools:

(*a*) Gymnasien, Realgymnasien, and Oberrealschulen . . . . . 120 marks (£6) a year.
(*b*) Progymnasien and Realprogymnasien . 100 marks (£5) a year.
(*c*) Realschulen . . . . . 80 marks (£4) a year (but if optional Latin is taken, £6 a year).

The City Schools vary, Frankfort charging a minimum of £7 10*s.*, Hamburg receiving as its Gymnasium fee £9 12*s.*, others, again, having a lower fee than £5 for all their higher schools. In Saxony the fees are much the same as in Prussia; while in the Southern states the average rate is lower, but the scale varies with the form. Foreign boys are generally charged a higher fee throughout Germany; while a boy who has an elder brother in the school is, usually, taken at half-price. In public schools, about 10 per cent

[1] *German Higher Schools* (Longmans, 1899), p. 154.

of the places are free, being usually given, upon nomination, to boys who are comparatively poor; and some of the great endowed boarding schools, like Schulpforta, give an entirely free education to a large number of boys. Special help is also afforded by different foundations towards the education of the sons of teachers, clergymen, and others, these bursaries being usually attached to the older classical schools.

Conduct of Leaving-Examinations.—As we have seen, the great stimulus to study is provided in German secondary schools by the lower and higher leaving-examinations and the various privileges they confer. It will be worth our while just to glance at the way in which such an examination is conducted in Germany. Confining our attention to the more important *Reifeprüfung*, or test of ripeness, at the end of the nine-years' course, we find that the examining body is made up of the headmaster, the teachers of *Prima*, a representative of the Local Board, if the school is a municipal one, and a delegate of the Provincial School Board, who presides. The examination is held about six weeks before the end of each *Semester*, or half-year, and is of the same difficulty as the regular work of *Ober-Prima*. It is both written and oral, the paper-work lasting a week, and success in it being necessary for admission to the *viva-voce*. Several sets of questions are prepared by the masters, and from these the chairman selects. A boy is declared *reif* if he is up to the standard all round, or above it in the more important subjects, for his type of school, even though he be weaker in the rest. If *unreif*, he must try the next half, and if he then proves hopeless he is advised to abandon the attempt. Disputes are settled by the *Wissenschaftliche Prüfungs-Kommission* of the district, to which also all the papers of half the secondary schools within its jurisdiction are sent for inspection each half-year. We have much room for meditation in all this, both as regards the regulation of appeal, and especially as to the very active, though controlled, part taken by masters in the examination of the boys they teach, and as to the adaptation of the test to the work done in school.

Conclusion.—The general impression left by a study of German schools is that they are, at any rate, magnificently organised and wonderfully effective in attaining the end they set before them—the acquisition by every boy of a high standard of all-round knowledge. In Germany the public values education for its own sake, and it is probable that the removal of all privileges attached to a secondary school course would not materially diminish the number of pupils.

The State indeed confers these privileges, in order to make sure that those who lead the nation have received a proper and thorough education; but it is just this education that is prized and demanded by business firms. The result of this training is the extraordinary efficiency displayed by Germans, alike in administration, in the professions, and in commerce. When a people is willing to treat education as a national institution, and to put it outside the reach of party feeling, as it does the Army or Navy, it is bound to reap the fruit of this concentrated and combined effort to secure widespread intellectual thoroughness; and Germany is reaping it to-day. There are, of course, defects in German schools, and the Germans are the first to admit them, and are trying to remedy them. Their system is insufficiently democratic, too respectful of class feeling, certainly too elaborately differentiated and lacking in elasticity. Here again, however, there is to-day a great tendency to favour experiment, and an openness to conviction, just as there is a movement against boys studying so much and playing so little; against the maintenance of denominational teaching given by masters to whom as a rule such teaching has become meaningless; and against excessive State control in *non-essentials*. In a German school we note the lack of self-government on the part of the boys, and of a graduated transition between the lower school and life; but, then, self-government is not as yet a German virtue. And German school control at least is always enlightened, even when excessive. State authority is practically decentralised into thirteen colleges of qualified inspectors, carefully grouped so as to secure co-ordination between different studies, men who are in touch with local needs and are always ex-headmasters, trained in the Universities with their invincibly liberal tradition. The interest of towns is encouraged, and they are proud to possess their own schools; but their rights never include interference in so special a thing as teaching. In Germany, government by ignorance, whether on the part of central or of local authorities, is happily unknown. And, though the State is liberal in its financial support of education, its help is even more felt in its generally sound regulations, which know nothing of payment by result, but classify schools into different types, and then insist on the proper execution of their special task. The State, too, takes account rather of the training afforded by a long school-course, carefully mapped out and graduated, than of the knowledge, possibly due to cram, which may be displayed in an examination. It is the intellectual education given by the *school* that qualifies in Germany. In

one point of administration, Germany, it is true, is still behind the France of the last thirty years, and the England of the last ten: she lacks a general advisory council (the *Oberschulrat* which Paulsen advocates) representing all grades of education and assisting their co-ordination. But this defect can be pardoned when we consider the increasing liberality of spirit shown by German educational officials, and the wonderful smoothness with which, thanks to them, the system is kept running. Few, however, who know this system, will disagree with Prof. Sadler's verdict that perfection lies in the mean between German over-organisation and English *laisser faire*, or with his aspiration that the English training of character, and will, and body, could be united with the German training of the mind. Certainly no English schoolmaster would desire in his boys German industry at the price of English buoyancy and freshness. The future, he trusts, will in both countries see these qualities combined.

[Books especially consulted: *Higher Schools and Universities in Germany*, Matthew Arnold; *German Higher Schools*, Russell; *German Education, Past and Present*, Paulsen; articles by Prof. Sadler in vols. iii. and ix. of Special Reports; various year-books and Lexis.]

CHAPTER IV

SECONDARY EDUCATION IN AMERICA

Introduction.—In recent years the increase of international and comparative study of the chief educational systems of the world has been so rapid that the broad features of these systems are well known in England, where such comparative study is even yet something of a new habit.

The habit is, nevertheless, old enough for it to be generally appreciated that, in the matter of the educational, as of the other social institutions of the country, we are studying a thing of growth, having roots in the past, and acclimatised to the soil in which it is planted.

The fruits of such study are not to be gathered by any attempt at wholesale borrowing or imitation. They are found rather in the inspiration that comes from the contemplation of a great purpose, together with the suggestions that are afforded upon the working of new experiments and upon points of detail.

This is essentially true of American education as viewed by the English student. To the English visitor it must appear very much in the light of a new creation—in its outward and visible forms still redolent of bricks and mortar. It exhibits a conflict of ideas, a struggle between the practical and the ideal aims, a variety of forms springing into existence as the result of local self-government, yet everywhere filled with the spirit of a new enthusiasm which stands out as its chief quality.

And, if one wishes to understand this spirit, it is necessary also to understand how it has arisen. We are then reminded that this very enthusiasm is not wholly new, but has a history of some two hundred odd years behind it. Education, since the Day of Independence and before, has been more widely recognised as a condition of individual and national well-being in the United States than has been the case in this country. Mr. Bryce has said: "The Americans are an

educated people, compared with the whole mass of the population in any European country, except Switzerland, parts of Germany, Norway, Ireland, and Scotland"; although it is true that he adds: "the education of the masses is nevertheless a superficial education. It is sufficient to enable them to think they know something of the great problems of politics, insufficient to show them how little they know."

Yet, if the work of education in America leaves so much still to be done, the old settlers in New England and the Middle States laid the foundation of the modern public-school system, and did much to secure that all American citizens should receive such education as would enable them to judge with independent minds on matters of religion and politics.

In 1647 the General Court of Massachusetts declared that every town or district of fifty families should support a Common School, and that every town of a hundred families, or over, should support a Grammar School of sufficient grade to prepare men for Harvard, which had been founded in 1636. The Massachusetts plan was soon imitated in every New England district. The middle colonies of New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania were not far behind, owing something to the early Dutch settlers, but more to the New England example. In the South there was for long no public-school system, although Maryland established free schools in 1696.

In those early days the public—*i.e.* elementary—schools were regarded somewhat in the light of a charity, and in the wealthier districts the private academy was more generally used. But, with the development of the poorer states, greater reliance was placed on the State School; and since dignity has resulted from general use, it has long been customary for the sons of all classes to receive their education side by side.

For a long time past the public schools have enjoyed a very large measure of national support. In 1785 an ordinance was adopted which defined the method of laying out townships and subdividing them into lots of 640 acres each, these lots to be numbered from one to thirty-six. This ordinance closed with the words: "There shall be reserved the lot No. 16 of every township for the maintenance of public schools within the said township." In 1787 another ordinance of the National Government contains the following preamble: "Religion, morality, and knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall be for ever encouraged." In addition to the provision mentioned in the

previous ordinance, it was enacted that lot No. 29 in each township was to be given for the purpose of religion, and that not more than two complete townships in each state were to be given for the purpose of a University. Grants of land, in support of the higher educational institutions in different states, have been frequent at various subsequent times. The following assignment made to South Dakota is typical of the way in which the nation has treated this problem: "For the School of Mines, 40,000 acres; for the Reform School, 40,000 acres; for the Deaf and Dumb Asylum, 40,000 acres; for the Agricultural College, 40,000 acres; for the University, 40,000 acres; for State Normal Schools, 80,000 acres."

In 1862 Congress passed a Bill granting to each state 30,000 acres for each senator and representative in Congress, for the maintenance of Agricultural Schools. In 1903 there were said to be forty-nine Agricultural Land-grant Colleges endowed by Congress.[1]

A belief in education and a desire that it should be within reach of all—at least of the white population—have thus been a marked feature of American life from the beginning. To-day a variety of causes are contributing to give to it almost the place of a religion. In the first place, America is recruited by immigrants from some of the most oppressed and backward of European countries. In 1903 only sixteen per cent. of the population of New York were native born. National safety demands that this heterogeneous body of newcomers should be fitted as quickly as possible to take their place as American citizens. Hence also, the great importance everywhere accorded to the teaching of English subjects.

A no less important influence, favouring a belief in education, is found in the sense of limitation that bounds the life of those many successful men who as pioneers have made their own way, but for whom a cultured life and further ambitions can be realised only in the persons of their better-equipped children.

Again, the concentration of attention, the centring of ambition, upon industrial and economic progress, have emphasised in particular the need for two sets of men—those instructed in the technique of commerce, of agriculture, of manufacture, and those with great powers of judgment and breadth of outlook. Training in this technique is one of the most fruitful forms of investment. It gives a rapid return

[1] For the above and some later statistics I am indebted to Professors Dutton and Snedden's valuable book entitled *Administration of Public Education in the United States* (The Macmillan Co., 1908), chap. iii.

in increased earning power. Where nature is so bountiful, an efficient man can command success. But for the larger posts of control qualities of a higher grade are needed; and the American believes more generally, and believed earlier, than the English business-man in the value of a theoretical and general training as a means of obtaining them.

These different considerations serve to throw light on the remarkable duality that is found in the belief in education in the States.

The desire for culture, rather as a mark of success and of progress, exists side by side with the constant demand for training, for efficiency. Each of these influences is seen contending in the curricula. They are found in the closest combination in all that is said or done in education's behalf. And they suggest the comparative neglect of scholarship. The complaint is likely, year by year, to become less true, but it has been, and still is, partly true that the higher branches of study have produced little or no original work, potential researchers having been diverted to description, to instruction, to exhortation. Originality on the part of the pupil has been too often consciously aimed at by the teacher. But the best means by which to gain it—originality and hard thought on the part of the teacher himself—have been missing. And the practical mission with which education has been everywhere so busy is the main reason for its absence.

One more fact needs to be stated, in order to judge American education from the proper standpoint. America is, over its greater extent, still a very young country. Its population to-day is some 85,000,000. In 1850 it was 23,000,000. While in the Eastern states educational institutions may have a history of several centuries, towns and cities are almost yearly springing up in the West and South, where all was prairie until but yesterday.

In such places as Denver, Kansas, Oklahoma, we are in the region where the high schools are yet in the building. And it is in such districts as these that we find the real and lively enthusiasm for education. For, when new cities are as yet in existence only on paper, it is the school site which is first mapped out; and, when the town grows up, it is the means for school support that claim the largest share of the appropriated funds.

Nowhere else in the world, probably, would one find, as at Lawrence, a State University, with many buildings and a large body of students, standing alone, apparently in the wilderness, with a sea of prairie extending as far as the eye can reach on all sides. And, because of this newness, it can

be easily understood that buildings, appliances, and apparatus will sometimes seem to be synonymous with education in the minds of their new owners. The glorification of the building, the seeming neglect of the teacher, are seen to be nothing but a phase of early educational growth.

§ 1. **Types of Secondary School.**—It follows from the facts of a profound belief in education, from a determination that the schools shall serve both practical and ideal ends, and from the varying age and wealth of the different states and cities, that, in the case of the secondary school, as of the other branches of the system, American education exhibits no uniformity, whether in respect to mode of administration, to relations with primary and University teaching, or as regards curriculum, co-education, and standard of requirement. Nevertheless, the influence of the National Educational Association, the requirements of the Universities, and the constant process of imitation and exchange of ideas, are tending to the creation of a few leading types, to one or other of which nearly all schools conform.

The Secondary Schools may be classified, using the mode of government as the basis of division, into two groups:

(i) Public High Schools.

(ii) Private Secondary Schools.

In the latter group are contained the Endowed Academies, constituting a more or less distinct class from the private-venture schools. In point of age the Public High School represents the latest development in the Secondary educational system. In the older Eastern states it is still of less importance than the Private School. But it is growing relatively to the Private School, even there; and in the West it practically has the field to itself. It is the existence of the Free Public High School, in which the instruction always, and frequently even the provision of books, are free to the residents of the district which the school serves, that stands out as the most noticeable feature of the American educational system, when viewed from the English standpoint. It completes the chain of free educational opportunities from the Kindergarten grades to the University.

In the Public High Schools all but from one-fifth to one-sixth of those receiving secondary education are enrolled. In certain ways they are substantially alike in all states. They are all designed to provide the training of scholars during the last four years of school life—namely, from fourteen to eighteen. They are nearly all co-educational. But they differ from each other in the nature of the curriculum, and in the freedom allowed to pupils in the choice of subjects.

Inside the Public High School itself there is considerable differentiation of work, although not of a sufficiently radical nature to constitute separate types of school. The varieties of aim are partly such as arise through the modification of the subjects taught in deference to the future needs of the pupil; but they are also partly governed by a difference of educational theory. These differences are sometimes recognised within the same school, through the facility given to the pupil in the pursuit of a number of alternative courses; sometimes, as for example at Washington, a separate school is devoted to the specialised treatment of a single routine. The most clearly marked distinctions in respect of alternative courses are, first, the Latin course, intended for those proceeding to the literary side of a University; second, the English course, which omits classical subjects entirely; third, the Manual Training course; and fourth, the Commercial course.

While Manual Training is introduced as one of the more important subjects in many secondary schools, it has received special attention in recent years, and has led to the growth of almost a distinct type of school, known as the Manual Training High School. The origin of this movement may no doubt be traced mainly to the ideas of the great leaders of pedagogic thought; and these ideas have appealed to the American educationists in this particular instance the more because, while appreciating the value of manual work as a means of training hand and eye, and of securing an all-round development of faculty, such a course has also seemed to bring education into closer touch with the future occupation of the pupil. Herein, too, lies the recognised danger of the Manual Training School. For the technical instructor in machine work is likely to be, or at least is in danger of being, dominated by the practical and even commercial ideas of the factory or workshop. Where that is so, the manual training will be degraded into an elementary drill in simple mechanical processes, and the school becomes a kind of rudimentary technical institute. But where this danger is avoided there is abundant evidence that the Manual Training High School succeeds not only in giving a thorough general education to the boy whose bent is of the practical kind, but in securing that even the purely literary studies can be carried to a stage as advanced, despite the shorter hours per week devoted to them, as in the English or Latin Schools. Other subsidiary motives are helping to implant the Manual Training School firmly in its place in Secondary Education. It is said to afford a good example to the negro, whose ambition always takes the form of despising manual labour, that the

sons of the wealthier white citizens should themselves embrace manual labour as an integral part of their training.

In the case of the girls, the object in view is rather to counteract the danger that women, under the influence of the larger life that is open to them, may soon be unwilling, and even unable, to undertake the functions of motherhood and of home care. It is to elevate and to give interest to this aspect of life that the science and practice of Domestic Economy are made prominent on the girls' side of the Manual Training School.

The arrangement of work in the McKinley Manual Training High School at Washington will afford a good example of the arrangement of studies in this type of institution. There are four different courses:

(i) Two years' Business course.
(ii) Four years' Non-Collegiate course.
(iii) Four years' Normal course.
(iv) Four years' College course.

Latin is not taught at all, German or French only in courses (iii) and (iv). The school week is of twenty-five hours, of which four are given to Manual Training and four to drawing in every course, an additional four hours being given to Manual Training in course (i). The work is as follows:

BOYS

First Year.	Second Year.	Third Year.	Fourth Year.
Joinery.	Forging.	Machine Fitting.	Machine Fitting.
Wood-turning.	Foundry Work.		
Pattern-making.			

GIRLS

Cooking.	Cooking.	Domestic Science.	Domestic Science.
Plain Sewing.	Laundry.	Domestic Art.	Domestic Art.
	Dressmaking.		

The Commercial course, like the Manual Training course, is not infrequently made the occasion for a good deal of specialised, and even technical, instruction. It will usually give the chief place in its curriculum to such subjects as History, Civics, English Composition, and Political Economy. It will also generally include instruction in Book-keeping, Typewriting, Shorthand, and the elementary methods of business practice.

Occasionally the fashion for practicality leads to the introduction of attempts to reproduce the conditions of commerce, and the pupils are taught the elements of banking or of counting-house work by the aid of a model office or counter, by means of which commercial practice is made familiar to the pupil.

While American High Schools, either through the different specialised institutions, or through the different courses available in a single school, offer a much greater variety to the pupil in the choice of his course than is open to the English boy (a variety, it is true, often greater in appearance than in reality in many High Schools, which, with insufficient staff, are anxious to imitate the well-known schools of Boston, Washington, or New York), there is another important point wherein American High Schools differ from each other—namely, the extent to which the school follows the "elective" method on the one hand, or the "prescriptive" method on the other.

The principle of "election"—that is, the free choice on the part of the pupil of the subjects which shall make up his course—aims at giving that flexibility to a school system which will enable the pupil to take advantage of natural predilection and bent. Election is permitted in practically all schools to a certain extent, parallel, for example, to the choice between the Modern and the Classical sides of our English schools.

But where the principle is carried to its furthest limit, the view that it does not matter what is taught so long as it be well taught, is pressed to an extreme. Almost any combination of subjects is then permitted, the only requirement imposed upon the student being that he shall present a certain number of units for graduation, without reference to any prescription at all. In these cases the school course becomes a mere hodge-podge, and it will surely soon be recognised that education demands a training, for the purpose of which all subjects are far from being of equal value. The plea that they are so, if only they be well taught, is a covert begging of the question, for it implies that the good teaching of any subject will involve a training in the same fundamental qualities. But, if this is so, education must aim at the teaching of these qualities openly and fully, as the foundation of all that is to follow. And for this purpose it is better to postpone a study of those subjects in which this elementary discipline is in danger of being overweighted by a mass of irrelevant information and description, a result almost certain to follow from premature specialisation in the more experimental and applied branches of knowledge.

In other and less important ways the Public High Schools are all alike. They are all day schools. They rarely make provision for the practice of athletics to the extent common in the larger English secondary schools. They are nearly all co-educational; and on this point the judgment of

American teachers themselves is still largely at variance. Co-education, no doubt, has great advantages: it may help to promote intercourse on a natural footing between boys and girls; it no doubt softens the manners (some would say to the point of effeminacy) of the boy; it may assist in promoting a healthy emulation, and in securing mutual respect intellectually, between the two sexes. It certainly seems to make easier the maintenance of discipline; and corporal punishment may be said to be unknown in secondary schools. But it also has its weaknesses. An American teacher of experience has said truly that, while boys between the ages of fourteen and eighteen require to be urged on in their work, girls of the same age are inclined to work too hard without pressure; so that, where the sexes sit side by side, one or other is likely to suffer. It is somewhat doubtful, too, whether the fleeting boy-and-girl friendships are not, at this stage, a waste of time; the rougher atmosphere of the playground would probably be better for both. It is not without significance that at Chicago there has recently been a distinct movement tending to revert to the old segregated method in secondary schools, while retaining co-education in the primary schools. Moreover, the question involves one practical point of some importance. The Mixed High School has had a considerable influence in determining the sex of the teachers. In the schools restricted to boys, whether public or private, women teachers are not often found. But in the co-educational schools women certainly predominate in the West and Middle West, while in the East their number is steadily increasing.

If we turn from the Public High Schools to the Private Schools, there are a few points of interest that should be recorded. The larger Private Schools, endowed and controlled by boards of trustees, as, for example, the Hopkins Grammar School of New Haven, and the Laurenceville School of New Jersey, are, as has already been pointed out, practically confined to the wealthier and older sections of the country. There are several reasons, however, why they are likely to hold their own in providing for the needs of special classes of the community. In the first place, while the Public Schools are wholly free from any religious test, and give no denominational instruction, the denominations will continue to be anxious to have schools controlled by those who share their religious views. Thus, not a few of these Endowed Schools are associated with the Wesleyan Conferences, or with the Roman Catholic Communion. Again, however much the spirit of democracy may prevail in America

generally, growing wealth is sure to carry with it a certain increase of class-distinction, which will find an educational outlet in the maintenance of schools restricted to the children of wealthy parents. For these, provision is made in schools modelled more closely upon the lines of our own English Public Schools—as, for example, Groton School, Massachusetts, and St. Paul's School, Concord.

The Private Schools are often boarding schools situated in the country. They are therefore more attractive and healthier than the Public High School, situated in the midst of a populated district. Few of the private schools are co-educational. These private schools differ, again, from the public in that they frequently provide in themselves a complete course of education from the elementary stage onwards. Thus, for instance, the Cleveland University School embraces pupils varying in age from nine to eighteen.

In this school, as in several of the private schools, manual training is made as important a feature as in the public schools. Up to the age of fifteen it is compulsory. After that, the pupil elects for a Classical or for a Scientific Course at the University, and in the former case drops manual work and devotes the extra time to classics. One advantage possessed by these private schools is the greater ease with which co-ordination between elementary and secondary instruction is effected. Boys are not kept back by doing over again elementary work because they have not reached the age for entry into the secondary grades. The standard of attainment is therefore usually higher. Of the private-venture schools nothing need be said, except that, while they are much fewer in number than in this country, they reproduce the weaknesses with which we are familiar in the case of such schools at home.

§ 2. **Administration.**—The control of education in America is, far more than is the case in England, a matter of local rather than of national concern. The most general power exercised by the State is found in the Compulsory Education Laws, the enforcement of which is nevertheless somewhat unequal. The usual requirement is for school attendance until the age of fourteen: sometimes, as in the case of New York, a further two years' compulsory schooling is demanded from those who have not completed a definite part of the elementary course of study. It should be observed, however, that the authorities are not nearly as active in the enforcement of these laws as in England. The amount of work done by our school-attendance officers finds no parallel in American cities, and, despite the general belief in education, there is

ground for the fear that many children may slip through the net.

The detailed control of education by the State Government is usually small and varies from state to state. In some cases explicit provision is made in the constitution with regard to education: for example, the constitution of Pennsylvania has the following clause:

"The Legislature shall, as soon as conveniently may be, provide for the establishment of schools throughout the State in such a measure that the poor may be taught gratis."

More recent constitutions frequently contain provisions in fuller detail—for example, that of Indiana, which, in addition to the obligation of providing "for a general and uniform system of common schools," enacts also that a State Superintendent of public instruction shall be elected by the voters.

The California constitution requires each district to maintain a six-months' school year, and determines the composition of the State Board of Education.

In Utah, the constitution, among other provisos, orders that the metric system shall be taught in the common schools of the State. Subject to such specific statements contained in the state constitutions, ultimate control lies, in the main, with the state legislatures. With them usually rests the organisation of suitable local areas of school administration—counties, divisions, townships, districts—the fixing of the qualifications of teachers, the regulation of the conditions of their employment, and the control over medical inspection and physical care. Very often the measures enacted by the Legislature are permissive in character, depending for their adoption upon local choice. In many districts it is a matter of local option whether or no free Public High Schools shall be built. No doubt, as time goes on, this permissive legislation will give place increasingly to mandatory legislation.

The supervision of education on the part of the State is effected through the instrumentality of the State Board of Education, presided over by the Superintendent of Public Instruction. The State Board is sometimes an *ex-officio* body composed of state officers, sometimes a body nominated by the state Governor. In the state of Washington there are two State Boards—a State Board of Education supervising the elementary schools, the certification of teachers, etc.; and the Board of Higher Education, which fixes courses for the Normal Schools, inspects High Schools, etc.

New York, perhaps, marks the furthest development in the direction of centralised control, acting through the newly

constituted Board of Regents, composed of eleven members, elected for eleven years by the Legislature. As yet, however, the States have reached no final stage in the evolution of a central educational control, and often almost everything is left to the local Boards of Education, subject to the supervision of the State Superintendent. This officer is in many states elected in the same way, and for the same term, as the Governor—a method of selection which makes it exceptional to find that any expert qualifications are required. The chief duties of the superintendent may be classified as—

(1) Statistical. He is required to make a regular report on the main facts of school expenditure and school attendance.

(2) Advisory and judicial. He may act as a Court of Appeal in matters affecting school trustees or county superintendents.

(3) Supervisory. Under this head the work of the Superintendent is mainly restricted to the promotion of further educational facilities and to the stimulation of public interest in the subject.

(4) Administrative. He takes a part in the distribution of state moneys, in the certification of teachers, etc.

For purposes of local educational control the country is in most states divided into four divisions—the county, the township, the city, and the school district. In the case of urban areas the tendency is for the city to assume independence, in educational control, of the containing county. Hence the district, the township, and the county are primarily concerned with the administration of rural education.

The County School Board varies in structure and function in different states. For example, in Florida the Board is a large one, elected by popular vote, and exercises a very detailed control in educational matters; while in Missouri the County Board consists only of the Commissioner of Education and two appointed members with limited functions.

The most important individual in the county organisation is the County Superintendent. Upon him often devolves, particularly in the newer and less populated areas, the inspiration and the direction of those under him. He is generally an officer elected for a short term of from two to four years, and is further usually required to be himself a certificated teacher. Frequent complaint is made that the insecurity of tenure, combined with the small salary which the Superintendent receives, results in an absence of really good candidates for the post. Sometimes the Superintendent is appointed in other ways, as, for example, by the members of the County Board.

The minor school areas—namely, the district and the township—are of varying importance in different parts of the country. Frequently the local school area has large powers of self-government, deciding upon the provision of school buildings, engagement of teachers, and enforcement of educational standards, with but little supervision either from the State or the County. In many cases the annual meeting for the election of school officers is the last survival of the more primitive forms of local self-government. The suffrage is usually very wide. Women are generally permitted to vote and to hold office upon the administrative body. Sometimes education suffers severely from its dependence upon an incompetent, or even a corrupt, education committee, which is subjected but little to higher authority. Teachers are often appointed for purely political qualifications, and are liable to dismissal with a change in the political character of the Board. Generally speaking, the larger demands which are now made on account of educational expenditure will have the effect of bringing about the fusion of districts into townships, and so of enlarging the unit of area for purposes of administration. But while the township is the effective unit of local government in some states—for example, in Massachusetts and New England—as a rule the school district seems to be gaining ground in the West and South. Each State is in fact evolving its own system, and almost every variety of division is found—indeed, the whole system of local administration is beset with difficulty and controversy.

With regard to the City School systems, the principal wants that are being felt are, freedom from corrupt political action, the need for able and expert officers, and the unification of control. In recent years the government of many of the City School districts in the Eastern states has been reformed. For instance, in New Haven, where in old days corruption was rife, the Board of Education, under the new charter, consists of seven members nominated by the Mayor. The Superintendent can be appointed, and is not removable except by vote of five members. To him is allotted the power of appointing all teachers, of reassigning and of dismissing them. He further prescribes the courses of study. In Rochester, N.Y., the Board of Education is composed of five elected members, but any member may be removed by the Mayor. The reformed system in Boston has also adopted an elected Board of five members who shall be unpaid, a striking contrast to the Board as it existed before 1875, with its 116 members.

Speaking generally, the tendency is towards the establishments of small boards, representative of men with proved administrative capacity and of known interest in education. The election of boards by small electoral areas has in nearly all cases proved a mistake. Either election by the people at large, or direct appointment by the chief municipal officer, is becoming the recognised mode of selection. Further, the Board is coming to be regarded as concerned with legislative functions mainly, leaving to competent paid experts the executive part of the work. Indeed, this last principle President Butler and President Eliot have made a *sine quâ non* in the reform of school affairs.

With regard to financial support, in addition to the endowments from the Federal Government, large sums are annually spent on behalf of education by the several States. In the report of the United States Commissioner for 1906, it is estimated that, during the preceding year, the States had spent on education altogether, over $307,000,000, a sum which amounts to more than 20 per cent. of the expenditure on all branches of the public service, including the United States Government. Of this total about 3½ per cent. is derived from permanent State or local funds; 15 per cent. from State taxation; 70 per cent. from local taxation; and the remainder from special sources, such as fines, licence fees, etc.

The value of school property is estimated at $783,000,000, or nearly $70 per caput of average attendance. The greater part of State aid, as distinct from local support, is given on behalf of Elementary Education, but there is a distinct tendency for the Secondary Schools to receive larger subsidy in relief of local taxation. In 1906–7 the State and Municipal Aid to the Public High Schools amounted to more than $8,500,000, apart from nearly $16,500,000 spent on sites, buildings, and improvements for such schools. In the same year the income from all sources of the Private High Schools and Academies was just over $8,000,000, and their expenditure on material equipment over $3,000,000.

§ 3. **Teachers: their Training, Qualification, Pay, etc.**— Passing from this brief reference to the external control of the school to a consideration of the work within the school itself, we may consider, first, the training of the teacher, his status, and his qualifications. In 1895, a committee of the National Education Association, reporting on the training of teachers for secondary schools, declared that "the degree of scholarship required for secondary teachers is by common consent fixed at a collegiate education." They proposed

a course of special training for such teachers, during the senior year of the College course, in Psychology, Methodology, School Systems and the History, Philosophy, and Art of Education, to be followed by a graduate year of practice in teaching, under close supervision. This recommendation remains, for the most part, an ideal far in advance of existing practice. As yet, the great majority of the American states make no specific requirement that the High School teacher shall be certificated. At the same time, there are many secondary schools where the teacher has little chance of appointment unless he is a college graduate. Most of the leading Universities, and many of the Higher Normal Schools, provide courses of training for teachers of secondary grade. The conditions in the most advanced sections of the country, in this connection, may be conjectured by the study of the following figures.

In 1897, the antecedents of High School teachers in Massachusetts were as follows: 1 per cent. were graduates of Scientific Schools, 13 per cent. were graduates of Normal Schools, 66 per cent. were graduates of Colleges, 20 per cent. were unclassified. In New York State, in 1898, 32 per cent. were College graduates, 39 per cent. were Normal School graduates, 19 per cent. were High School graduates, 10 per cent. had received other training.

No satisfactory statistics exist to show the extent to which secondary teachers, as a class, have been professionally trained. Speaking of the country as a whole, it has been recently said by a competent authority, that "Perhaps, averaging all the different states of the Union, 15 to 20 per cent. of all the teachers in our schools have received special training. The remaining 80 to 85 per cent. have been prepared by private study and tested wholly by examination and experience."[1]

Probably the training of teachers is not further advanced in America than with us. All the normal schools of every kind put together could hardly turn out half of the annual supply needed for the elementary schools, and the proportion of trained secondary teachers is quite small.

It is of interest to note that, just as manual training is gaining such a large place in the curriculum of the secondary schools, so it is prominent in the specialised courses provided in the best Training Colleges. In the Teachers' Training College, Columbia, two courses are provided in manual training, for primary and secondary teachers respectively, in each case of two years' duration, and requiring, as a pre-

[1] Cubberley, *The Certification of Teachers*, p. 8.

liminary condition four years in a High School, followed by two years' academic course at a recognised college. The time table is as follows:

First Year

Manual Work	12 hours per week.
Mechanical Drawing	2 " "
Fine Arts	2 " "
Educational Lectures	6 " "

Second Year

Manual Work	10 hours per week.
Mechanical Drawing	2 " "
Fine Arts	2–6 " "
Educational Lectures	5 " "

The appointment of teachers in the public schools, elementary and secondary, is in the hands of the local authority, whether of the city or of the non-urban community. Occasionally, the Board of Education delegates this function to the Superintendent, and there are a few instances of appointment as the result of competitive examination. In New York examination is used as a means of selecting an eligible list, from which the Board makes its final choice.

The appointment of teachers by the Boards has certain marked and obvious defects. It opens a field for the abuses of partisanship: it may foster nepotism. "Pull" and "graft" have had their place in public education, as in other branches of the public service. Perhaps more serious an evil even than these is the danger that the educational and professional standards of the teachers, judged thus by Boards of laymen, may remain low. It is often said that this method of selecting the teachers has done much to discourage professional training, since that training does not receive recognition at its true worth. It has been wisely remarked that, not the system of certification, but the system of appointment, constitutes the gateway to teaching, and it is at this gateway that standards can be maintained which shall ultimately determine the character of the profession itself.

The tenure of office of teachers is in some ways equally unsatisfactory. They are usually elected for a year, after which they may, or may not, be re-elected, according to the will of the Board. Many Boards expect to have to refill their appointments almost year by year. This is particularly true in the case of the rural schools, from which gravitation

takes place towards the towns. An inquiry in California in 1902 showed that 39 per cent. of the rural school appointments were filled anew each year, and it was estimated that in about half the cases the teachers would have been glad to return, if the Boards had not been in opposition.

On the other hand, in nearly all cities having well-organised systems, teachers enjoy a fair measure of security of tenure. Where conditions are stable, the efficient teacher may be sure of re-election from year to year; but, in the many places where political or personal considerations affect the action of the Board, the time of annual re-election comes to be viewed by the teachers with anxiety.

The promotion of teachers suffers in many cases from the defects of a routine system. Teachers rise step by step, and exceptional ability often goes without its reward, though failure in disciplinary and teaching power is said to be penalised with greater frankness and frequency than in England.

The pay of the teacher is usually very small when compared with the salaries obtainable by persons of similar ability in commerce or industry. It is partly the false economy in the payment of teachers that accounts for the large proportion of women in the profession. This is not so marked in the case of the secondary schools as in the case of the elementary. In 1904-5 there were in Public High Schools 28,461 teachers, of whom 47 per cent. were men; while, of all teachers graduating from the public and private schools in the same year, less than 14 per cent. were men. In a large number of cities recently investigated, the average salary of men teaching in the High Schools was $1,300 per annum, and of women $900; and this average is largely affected by the presence of a few wealthy cities paying relatively high salaries. In the smaller cities and in the rural districts the salaries frequently do not exceed $40 to $50 a month. These figures may be contrasted with the earnings of an average mechanic in regular employment, which will normally amount to at least $800 per annum, and often to considerably over $1,000.

In some states small pensions are allowed to teachers upon retirement, usually created by means of a percentage, paid by the teacher during the tenure of his appointment, on the salary received. In New York, the Pension Funds are increased by the amount received as the proceeds of certain small taxes, and may be enlarged by private bequests.

§ 4. **Teaching: the Curricula, Time Tables, etc.**—No one who has had the opportunity of listening to the lessons

given in a number of American schools can fail to mark certain well-defined differences which distinguish the American from the English teacher. These differences are partly due to the conditions under which the work is carried on, partly to a conscious variation of aim. In all ways the American youth seems at an earlier age to have gained maturity, and to take a place on an equal footing with his grown-up fellows. And this tendency finds its expression in the school, in a certain feeling that scholar and teacher are on a level, co-operating in the search for knowledge, rather than holding the places of imparter and recipient of instruction. "The constant interchange of opinion between teacher and pupil, not, as is in England the case, either the communication of information to the class by the teacher, or the mere wringing of what is supposed to have been learned from the pupil by the teacher," seems to be the characteristic attitude of the class-room. And this relationship is emphasised by the conscious purpose of the teacher, who aims at throwing the pupil back upon himself and drawing from him his own ideas. Thus, not seldom, the class-room has the air rather of a debating society, in which one or other of the pupils reads a short thesis that is subjected to the criticism of his class-mates and of the teacher. Incidentally, one might suggest that this is, perhaps, one reason why the average American is so much readier in speaking than the average Englishman. Another characteristic feature of American teaching is what might be called its democratic aim. There is a marked absence of any attempt to select the few clever pupils and to urge them on, it may be to the neglect of those of only average ability. The object seems always to be to raise the class, as a whole, to a decent average of attainment. Perhaps this is due in the main to the absence of competitive examinations, and of the opportunity to obtain entrance-scholarships at the Universities. If so, the result seems to be a certain slackness in the work, and a contentment with a low standard which often strikes the observer. In part, however, the elementary character of the work done in the High Schools is the outcome of the difficulty of co-ordinating primary and secondary grades. Frequently the work of a clever boy between the ages of twelve and fourteen is wasted. In the elementary grades he is restricted to English subjects and arithmetic: the classes are often large, and the work not very strenuous, and he is thus kept at elementary tasks at a time when he should be grappling with some of the difficulties of mathematics or of classics. Occasionally a way out of this dilemma is sought by introducing some of the High School subjects into the higher grades of the

elementary schools. The chief obstacles in the way are, the lack of sufficiently good teachers in the elementary grades, and the feeling that, for the majority of children who are not going on to the High School, these subjects are a waste of time. An instance of a successful attempt to meet the difficulty is afforded in the case of the High School at Newton, Massachusetts. Latin has there been introduced into the higher grades of the elementary school, and the teachers who knew some Latin were invited to go to the High School teachers to refresh and improve their knowledge, and to get an idea of what they were wanted to teach. The two sets of teachers visited each others' classes for mutual observation and criticism, and formal and informal conferences between the two were held from time to time. Every quarter a report is sent to the elementary school of the performance in the High School of its old pupils. A similar plan has been adopted in other subjects, such as algebra and English literature.

Yet another reason for the defective standard of attainment may be found in the nature of the curriculum, which usually contains more subjects than are taught in an English secondary school. For example, in the High School at Philadelphia there are three alternative courses.

In the Classical course the curriculum is as follows :

Freshmen Class—

English.	History (Greece	Algebra.
Latin.	and Rome).	Drawing.

Sophomore Class—

English.	Geometry.	Physics.
Latin.	Chemistry.	Drawing.
History (English).		

Junior Class—

English.	History (U.S.A.).	Physics.
Latin.	Algebra.	Biology.
Greek.	Chemistry.	

Senior Class—

English.	Greek.	Social Science.
Latin.	Algebra.	Drawing.

The course of study at the Moline High School, Illinois, gives an example of a curriculum introducing both the prescribed and elective systems.

ENGLISH COURSE

FIRST YEAR.	Hours.	Weeks.	Credits.
REQUIRED WORK:			
Algebra	4	36	8
English	4	36	8
Greek and Roman History	4	36	8
Botany	3½	36	7
ELECTIVE WORK:			
Penmanship and Letter Writing	4	16	2
Domestic Science	3	36	3
Manual Training	4	36	4
Physical Training	2	36	2
Freehand Drawing	2	36	2
Vocal Music	3	36	3

SECOND YEAR.	Hours.	Weeks.	Credits.
REQUIRED WORK:			
Algebra	4	16	4
Plane Geometry	4	20	4
English	4	36	8
Zoology	3½	36	7
Physiology	3	20	3
ELECTIVE WORK:			
Penmanship and Letter Writing	4	16	2
Manual Training	4	36	4
Physical Training	2	36	2
Freehand Drawing	2	36	2
Vocal Music	3	36	3

THIRD YEAR.	Hours.	Weeks.	Credits.
REQUIRED WORK:			
Plane Geometry	4	16	4
Advanced Arithmetic or Solid Geometry	5 4	20 20	5 4
English	4	36	8
Chemistry	5	36	10
ELECTIVE WORK:			
Geology	3	36	6
Mediæval and Modern History	4	36	8
Commercial Law	3	20	3
German, French, or Latin	5	36	10
Penmanship and Letter Writing	4	16	2
Freehand Drawing	2	36	2
Physical Training	2	36	2
Vocal Music	3	36	3

FOURTH YEAR.	Hours.	Weeks.	Credits.
REQUIRED WORK:			
English	4	36	8
Physics	5	36	10
American History and Civil Government	4	36	8
ELECTIVE WORK:			
Physical and Commercial Geography	3	36	6
German, French, or Latin	5	36	10
Penmanship and Letter Writing	4	16	2
Physical Training	2	36	2
Freehand Drawing	2	36	2
Vocal Music	3	36	3

SCIENTIFIC COURSE

FIRST YEAR.	Hours.	Weeks.	Credits.
REQUIRED WORK:			
Algebra	4	36	8
English	4	36	8
Latin	5	36	10
Botany	3½	36	7
ELECTIVE WORK:			
Penmanship and Letter Writing	4	16	2
Domestic Science	3	36	3
Manual Training	4	36	4
Physical Training	2	36	2
Freehand Drawing	2	36	2
Vocal Music	3	36	3
SECOND YEAR.			
REQUIRED WORK:			
Algebra	4	16	4
Plane Geometry	4	20	4
English	4	36	8
Zoology	3½	36	7
Latin	5	36	10
Physiology	3	20	3
ELECTIVE WORK:			
Greek and Roman History	4	36	8
Penmanship and Letter Writing	4	16	2
Manual Training	4	36	4
Physical Training	2	36	2
Freehand Drawing	2	36	2
Vocal Music	3	36	3

THIRD YEAR.	Hours.	Weeks.	Credits.
REQUIRED WORK:			
Plane and Solid Geometry	4	36	8
English	4	36	8
Chemistry	5	36	10
ELECTIVE WORK:			
Geology	3	36	6
Mediæval and Modern History	4	36	8
Latin, French, or German	5	36	10
Penmanship and Letter Writing	4	16	2
Freehand Drawing	2	36	2
Physical Training	2	36	2
Vocal Music	3	36	3
FOURTH YEAR.			
REQUIRED WORK:			
Physics	5	36	10
English	4	36	8
Physical and Commercial Geography	3	36	8
American History and Civil Government	4	36	8
ELECTIVE WORK:			
Latin, French, or German	5	36	10
Penmanship and Letter Writing	4	16	2
Physical Training	2	36	2
Freehand Drawing	2	36	2
Vocal Music	3	36	3

The following is the general course of study for the English High School at Cambridge, Massachusetts:

Subjects	Hours per week
First Year	
Latin, French, or German	5
Algebra	5
English History (7 months) and Physiology (3 months)	3
English	3
Drawing	1
Second Year	
Latin, French, or German	5
Physics	5
English	3
Geometry, 3; or History of Greece and Rome	3
Third Year	
Latin, French, German (one or two)	5 or 10
Chemistry	3
Botany	2
English	3
History of the United States, Elementary	3
Harmony, as an extra subject	2

Pupils who take two foreign languages this year, may omit Botany and either Chemistry or History.

Fourth Year	
Latin, French, German (one or two)	5 or 10
English	5
Civics	2
Astronomy	2
History of the United States, Elementary, or detailed study of a limited period	3
Counterpoint and Melodic Instruction, as an extra subject	2

Pupils who take two foreign languages this year, may omit Civics and Astronomy.

The following is the scientific course at St. Louis High School:

First Year: English, Algebra, Biology, Latin.
Second Year: English, Geometry, Physics, Latin.
Third Year: English, Algebra, Geometry, Chemistry, Physics, Latin, and one Modern Language.
Fourth Year: English, History, Latin, one Modern Language, Trigonometry, Chemistry, Shakespeare.

It is clear that with a time-table filled with so many subjects, many of them taken up only to be dropped at the end of a single year, the standard of attainment cannot be very high.

§ 5. **Scholarships: Examinations. Relation of High Schools to the University.**—Speaking broadly, the American school knows little of the competitive system which is in vogue in England, and in which success is measured in prizes and scholarships. The usual method for promoting pupils from grade to grade is to hold annual, or semi-annual, reclassification, in which the opinion of the teacher, or of a group of teachers, not the final issue of an examination or the number of marks earned, is the deciding factor. In secondary schools "promotion by subject" is replacing the "promotion by grade" which holds in the elementary school. Not infrequently a school will contain a certain number of accredited teachers who are recognised by the Higher Educational authorities, and to them is left complete liberty in the matter of promotion, while the pupils of non-accredited teachers must submit to examination. This accrediting system was introduced as early as 1871 by the University of Michigan, in order to avoid the tendency to "cram" for a final entrance examination into the Universities. Under this system the University admits to its Freshmen Class, without examination, such graduates of approved secondary schools as are specially recommended for that purpose by the accredited teachers in those schools. In 1896 there were forty-two State Universities that had adopted the accrediting system. It depends upon a purely voluntary agreement between the secondary school and the higher institution. The college or University satisfies itself that the secondary school is fit for recognition: the University will usually inspect the school from time to time. Thus the examination applies rather to the school and its teachers than to the scholars. The accrediting system not only aims at avoiding the evils of examination; it aims at encouraging and strengthening the secondary schools. But the plan has certain serious disadvantages. It may tend towards a disposition to dispense with all tests of accurate scholarship, and it lays a heavy burden upon the higher institution. Accrediting is more common in the West, and examination holds its place to a larger extent in the East.

From the fact that the High Schools are free it follows that scholarships are not required by their pupils during the school career. If books and appliances are not provided free to all, they can usually be obtained gratis in the case of

the needy. In the Universities the fees are generally low, and although bursaries, granted from year to year, are sometimes given to poor students, it is more common for such men to pay their way by undertaking some remunerative work, which they perform in their spare moments. Nearly every University contains many students who thus earn their living in a variety of ways—for example, by waiting in Hall, by the delivery of letters, by undertaking certain forms of service in neighbouring houses, such as care of the furnaces, and in many other ways. The atmosphere is intensely democratic, and the student loses no caste by doing such work; while money earned in this manner may be said to take the place of the large scholarship funds of our own Universities. In addition, the colleges and Universities usually have considerable funds at their disposal for the special help of poor students. But grants from such funds are made as a result of inquiry into the need of the student, not as a reward for a successful examination. These funds are sometimes used by way of loan to be repaid after graduation.

Conclusion.—A few statistics may conclude this brief review of the work of the secondary school in America.

In 1905-6, out of every 100,000 of the population, 880 were enrolled in the Public High Schools, giving a total enrolment for the country of over 740,000. Of this number 58 per cent. were girls. Besides this, one-sixth as many children were being educated in Private Secondary schools. The number of Public schools was 8,031, with a total staff of 30,844 teachers, of whom 53 per cent. were women. The secondary schools in the country with only one teacher are still numerous. Those with one or two teachers outnumber all the rest. Over 36 per cent. of all High School students are in schools having from one to three teachers. In the cities, however, the schools average about 400 pupils each, with one teacher to less than 30 pupils and about 14 teachers to the school.

With regard to attendance, a very large number of the students who enter stay only one or two years. Of the total enrolment in Public High Schools, 43 per cent. is in the first year; 26 per cent. in the second year; 18 per cent. in the third year; and 13 per cent. in the fourth year.

Over a series of years it has been estimated that the number who complete a High School course has been from 11 to 12 per cent. of the total enrolment. No doubt the chief explanation of this great leakage during the High School life is the fact that parents and children regard it

as something of a social stigma if the latter are unable to say that they have had a High School education ; but the social conscience seems to be appeased by attendance for a single year, or even, in some cases, for a term.

Some comparison between the conditions in England and in America is suggested by the rough estimate made by Mr. Fletcher in 1904, that, while in England there were 5·5 children per thousand of the population receiving a secondary education, in America there were 9·5 children per thousand of the population, and, in such progressive states as Connecticut, as many as 12·13 per thousand, all over fourteen years of age. These figures serve to show that in America people enjoying middle or lower grades of income are doing nearly twice as much in the way of educating their children, at least in so far as attendance at school is concerned, as is being done by the same classes here.

No student of the subject can fail to reach the conclusion that, however crude American education may be in certain ways, however many problems await solution, yet the driving power which impels its progress will inevitably lead to a continuous advance towards the realisation of its ideal—that the nation shall be prepared through its youth, not only for the successful conduct of affairs, but for the humane enjoyment of leisure and its opportunities.

C. J. HAMILTON

PART II

THE REORGANISATION OF ENGLISH HIGHER SCHOOLS

I. THE EXTENSION OF PUBLIC CONTROL

II. THE IMMEDIATE TASK BEFORE THE BOARD OF EDUCATION

III. THE POSITION OF THE HEADMASTER

IV. THE POSITION OF THE ASSISTANT-MASTER

CHAPTER I

THE EXTENSION OF PUBLIC CONTROL

IN the preceding pages we have endeavoured to put the reader in possession of the main facts in the development and actual condition of Secondary Education in this country. Side by side with the sketch of what is being done in England, we have given a briefer outline of the lines on which France, Germany, and America have solved, or are solving, the same problem. We have tried fairly to estimate the defects as well as the merits of their systems, in order to gain the double advantage of suggesting the adaptation of what is good, and the avoidance of what is excessive or harmful. And we have chosen these three countries, not only because of their intrinsic greatness, but because they have dealt with higher schools in characteristically different ways, and therefore afford an admirably varied record for comparative study. Each of these peoples has framed, or evolved, a national system of education which reflects its own national genius, but all three alike—France and Germany for nearly a century, America within the last forty years—have aimed, and are still aiming, at a *system*, at putting and keeping their educational house in order, at securing efficiency in public life, and extension of national influence, by organising the different grades of their public instruction and by considering the excellence of this instruction a matter of supreme national importance.

Education an International Concern.—Moreover, although nations, like individuals, will always differ in their needs and temperament, and will continue to make their public machinery closely expressive of their most distinctive—and probably most valuable—characteristics, to emphasise and perpetuate their own personality, yet all progressive nations are daily becoming more ready to investigate and adapt from the contributions of their neighbours towards the realisation of various ideals, efficiency in national defence, efficiency in

industry and commerce, the diminution of class and sectarian bitterness, the spread of comfort and enlightenment. Certainly no subject has, during the last half-century, demonstrated its international importance more convincingly than Education, the indispensable groundwork upon which all permanent embodiment of every one of these ideals must rest, and it is probable that in no sphere of activity can different nations learn from each other, and help each other, with greater profit to themselves and with greater advantage to their common cause. The young, like the dead, afford no pretext for jealousy and contention: in turning boys into happy and useful men there is only room for generous rivalry: and the eagerness shown by the different countries to adapt the proved successes of their neighbours to their own requirements springs from a growing conviction that all national systems have some, at least, remediable defects, and that true patriotism consists in learning from other countries how these defects can be corrected, rather than in superfluous self-laudation because of the few, or many, good points that their own educational organism exhibits. In England timidity, self-interest, or a narrow and obtuse conservatism constantly speaks as though all the virtues of an institution were menaced by the mere diagnosis of its vices, forgetful of the certain doom awaiting those who, relying on apparent vigour, laugh to scorn the verdict that they are suffering from a dangerous though curable disease. Happily this attitude is growing rarer, and the nation is generally willing to listen to the voice of Prof. Sadler to-day, whereas it was contented to admire the literary charm of Matthew Arnold's reports on foreign education, while smiling complacently at the substance of his expert and reiterated warning. At last we are becoming teachable, and just as the French and Germans are busy investigating our methods for training the bodies and characters of our youth, so we in turn are beginning to read the masterly series of Special Reports on the highly successful methods which other nations have elaborated for training their boys' minds; to avail ourselves of the enlightened citizenship of Mr. Mosely in order to see with our own eyes the way in which America is improving her instruction; to perceive that there is everything to gain, and, if we are careful, nothing to lose, by treating education as the affair, not of an individual, or a sect, or a caste, but of the whole nation. And if, in the first flush of our new sense of sin and shortcoming, we are filled with dismay at the thought that during all the nineteenth century we were letting the greater part of the country's intellect run to waste,

while France and Germany were building a scientific series of dams to save their brain-power and apply it to turn, inexpensively and efficiently, their national machinery, yet we may take comfort from the thought that we can at least profit by the experience of more enterprising countries and establish for ourselves a system that shall be free from proved defects, English and foreign alike, while combining those qualities of our own and other nations, which, even taken singly and spoiled by many blunders, have in the past, in some measure, compensated, by their tried excellence, for even a multitude of mistakes.

How to draw Lessons from a Foreign System.—Thus, when we find the experts of any country agreed in condemning certain features of their own organisation—as, in France, the excess of centralisation, the barrack-life of boarders, the distinction between teacher and usher, the reduction of head-masters to mere administrative officials ; as, in Germany, the general lack of co-ordination between the elementary and the secondary schools, the overpressure of the boys, the retention of formal dogmatic instruction ; as, in America, the excess of popular control, the underpayment and insecurity of teachers, the undue preponderance of women in educational work—we must, in our own reorganisation, be careful to avoid any measures which are likely to involve the same drawbacks. When, again, we discover a particular excellence in another country that is chiefly characteristic of that country alone—such as the variety of subjects, unified by a common disinterested spirit in their treatment and a common standard of demanded attainment, which the French *programmes* offer ; or the definiteness of aim with which the Germans allot different types of instruction to different schools ; or the patience with which America endeavours to adapt her curricula to modern conditions and child psychology —then we must give our fullest attention to the study of this excellence, of its causes and results, and consider how far it is capable of being developed in our own country, in view of the immediate needs and the highest future interests of our schools : we must discuss the question on its merits, and treat the application of the theory it involves rather as an experiment in the first place, to be extended or rejected as it proves congenial and useful, or exotic and unworkable, when tested by English practice. But when we find not only the three leading peoples but almost every European nation agreed upon certain main principles of educational efficiency, and practising their precepts with conspicuous success—as, for instance, that higher education shall,

so far as is consistent with its excellence, be cheap and accessible ; that secondary instruction must precede specialised work ; that the self-interest of a fragment of the population must be subordinated to national improvement ; and that a comprehensive standardisation of instruction in all its grades can only be attained by collective effort, or by a less or greater degree of State provision and State control—then, if we are wise, we shall hesitate no longer, but shall determine that whatever the details of our own system may be, it shall certainly be put upon a secure basis by recognising that even English education *is* not exempt from the rule of natural law, that we too must build upon those fundamental principles which, in every other country, are proving themselves the condition of permanence and strength.

The Long Road English Education has still to traverse.—Now it is likely that few who have had the patience closely to follow our sketch, in a previous chapter, of the development of English secondary education, will deny either that much has been done, especially within the last ten years, to bring order into chaos and remedy the worst defects, or that very much more still remains to be done before we can flatter ourselves that we have constructed an educational system worthy of our country. If it is true that we no longer allow endowments to be cynically misappropriated, as by Eton before 1868, or force the poorer Grammar Schools to sacrifice a liberal training to premature specialisation in Science, as between 1872 and 1895, or are entirely ignorant both of the numbers of children in nominal receipt of secondary instruction, and of the qualifications of their teachers, as before the census of 1897, yet it is also true that we still allow our masters to be paid the salary of a junior clerk and put obstacles in the way of their professional recognition ; that we still entrust the establishments in which our leading classes educate their sons to the almost unfettered control of men who, however enlightened individually, are unable or unwilling, when acting collectively, to secure the most imperative reforms in financial administration and questions of curriculum alike. It is, moreover, still the fact that a third of our secondary-school boys are being educated in private schools, of which the relative efficiency of a small minority affords not the slightest argument against the certain inadequacy of the rest ; yet we alone, among the greater European nations, content ourselves with inviting them to be inspected, though we know better than merely to invite quacks, butchers, milkmen, and factory-owners to our searching little official interviews. It is seven years since we set up

our local authorities, and, as yet, most of them have shown themselves incapable of distinguishing between the administration of higher elementary and of secondary education, while cases are not unknown in which they have excluded co-opted educational experts from their councils, on the ground that they paid no rates, and have reduced a headmaster's salary by one-third, after he had spent £2,000 on improving and maintaining his school, rather than make a sufficiently liberal grant towards its upkeep. It is almost as long since the Board of Education defined secondary education as a training extending up to, and beyond, the age of sixteen, and yet we have seen in the latest statistics that only two boys out of sixty-two in schools "under the Board" were above sixteen; that eighteen were under twelve; and that the great majority of the forty-two remaining left school long before they reached their sixteenth year. In education other than secondary, the Board has spoken words of golden wisdom about the objects of elementary instruction, yet all reforms are made impossible while local parsimony allows classes of seventy and sixty to be rather the rule in towns than the shameful exception. We continue to deplore unemployment and the bestial ignorance of the people after the money spent upon their "education," and we throw away our shilling rather than spend a penny more in order to secure the vocational training of our children and their rational guidance during adolescence, by following the lead of Germany and instituting a compulsory system of Continuation Schools; while at the other end of the scale, Oxford and Cambridge show themselves, in their constitutional assemblies, adverse to the most moderate proposals of internal reformers, apparently preferring the less tender mercies of a Commission. Finally, it is no exaggeration to say that the general public of parents of all classes are still alternating between unenlightened demands that what seems immediately useful, rather than what is permanently stimulating, shall be taught their children, and an attitude of disgusted indifference to all education; yet they would certainly learn to understand any system which pursued ends at once noble and practical, in a definite and logical way, and would not be less interested than French or German parents in the studies and successes of their sons if they were given a clear idea of the object which their own boy's school had set before it, and of the discipline, mental, moral, and physical, which must be undergone, all of it, before that object can be reached: they would see that nothing really valuable can be obtained without long and patient endeavour,

and would, perhaps, even come to prefer that their boy should "be something" rather than "get something" at school and in the world, though in aiming at the first the second would probably be added unto them.

The State the only Guide out of the Wilderness.—What then is the conclusion to which we in England must come if we face, with the manliness and enterprise which we like to think peculiarly English qualities, the facts concerning the condition and necessities of education presented by our country? This: that we, like other nations, must organise and adjust, calmly, comprehensively, logically, from the bottom to the top, retaining and encouraging every factor that has proved its value, firmly but mercifully eliminating all elements of selfish obstruction, considering not what is best for one particular class, rich or poor, or for one particular sect, Church or anti-Church, or for one particular form of national activity, commercial, industrial, or professional; but what is best for a society which embraces all alike, and has for its highest aim to humanise and harmonise them all. Now if we are to wait for each separate grade of education to reform itself with the minimum of interference from without, we might well wait for ever. Not only is it historically proven, but it is inevitable from the very nature of the case, that a problem so complex as national education, in any sense of the word that implies a positive policy, can only be solved by the whole nation, acting through disinterested experts after consultation with the representatives of every grade and every interest. In other words, the State alone can hope to settle what is essentially, as much as the Army and Navy, the State's affair. For this matter is quite as much of national as of provincial or local importance, and there is no authority lower than the central which can hope to compel where it cannot persuade. The subject of this book, secondary education, can only be satisfactorily considered in connection with primary, or preparatory, education on the one hand, and tertiary, or University, education on the other. No secondary school can do its proper work unless it receives boys at the proper age, adequately trained to receive its instruction. No secondary school can draw up a sound curriculum, or give itself to its real task of training the mind rather than spoon-feeding it with facts, until the Universities and other institutions of higher learning agree to accept some common standard of attainment and adapt their examination to the school course rather than *vice versâ*. No attempt to deal justly with the finances of education will be successful which does not check the competition of school

with school, and college with college, in buying brains, whether their owner be in need of the price they fetch or not. The different sections of the educational world are more or less powerless to shake off their own fetters, even when they are not so indifferent or blind to their slavery as to deny that the fetters are there. The State alone, by increasing the range of the enlightened control it inaugurated at the beginning of the century, can effect the emancipation of the schools. Compared with the present Egyptian bondage and persistence of divers plagues, State service would indeed be perfect freedom.

Educational Efficiency the Greatest National Need.—We may then perhaps assume that a self-governing people will in the future insist upon the public control of the schools through which alone its children can be trained to efficiency in the national service, and sane idealism in the control of the national life. It will regard the best possible education of its youth as its first line of defence, as a policy of self-protection less costly and infinitely more remunerative than the building of battleships and the increasing of army corps (though these also have their uses), and will no longer say with Lowe, about the children of the artisan, "We must educate our masters," but will work out a scheme which shall embrace the children of all classes, and fully develop their various talents, saying rather, "We must educate our servants." But we have seen that education is too complex in its outward machinery, and too difficult and technical an art and science in itself, to be left to any agency that cannot command the best expert skill in its administration and the widest and deepest knowledge in its exponents. We do not leave the organisation of regiments or fleets to local bodies, or the training of our soldiers and sailors to unqualified individuals or competing military and naval academies. Yet we allow the boys who will be our leaders in business and the professions, and who will, for the most part, make our laws, to grow up in class schools, isolated from all contact with life except through a round of pleasures during the holidays, with minds still often starved by grammatical drudgery in languages which are dead, in every sense of the word, to half the boys who study them, with an acquired habit of regarding all mental work as useless and bad form. And we permit the boys who will be our managers, town-councillors, and chief municipal servants to receive a caricature of training in the front parlour of an adventurer or on the benches of a moribund grammar school, until at the age of fourteen or fifteen they begin "life," with an intellectual outfit useless alike for the office and

the study. The reason why we get on as a nation as well as we do, in spite of such defects, is partly because we were given a long start in the international race by mechanical discovery, mineral wealth, and the great Continental war, but more especially because our state and imperial machinery was elaborated by an aristocracy of birth or wealth which, until forty years ago, supplemented the deficiencies of its education by a real interest in life and letters. We must once more regard ignorance rather than intellectual keenness as unworthy of a gentleman, unless we mean to miss even a consolation prize.

The stating of the Problem.—Our problem then will be how to combine individual with collective effort; in the words of Prof. Sadler, "to encourage individual initiative inside a public system"; to foster local interest and patriotism without surrendering to amateurs the control over deparments which belong to experts; to guide the management and curriculum of our different types of school without tying up their administrators and teachers with needless yards of red tape; to unite liberty of experiment with acceptance of methods of proved superiority; to give each school its definite task and the means for its proper accomplishment; to assist talent discovered among the poor without pauperising whole classes; by adapting our studies to life to produce an intelligent rather than an intellectual proletariate; to develop together the body and mind and heart; to introduce the spirit of modern science into a system inspired by what is best in the old English tradition. The problem is not easy of solution, and we can only hope to hazard a few very imperfect suggestions about the lines on which we think it could be solved. We shall leave the questions of curricula and internal administration of schools to a later section. Here we shall only deal with their external control, endeavouring to be severely practical.

The Internal Reform of the Central Authority: the Condition of its Usefulness.—Over a national system of education we may then conclude that an effective supreme control will be exercised by the State, the only power that can give unity of purpose by directing and correlating individual effort. This control will be administered by experts, combined in a single department in charge of the various grades of instruction, advised by the best authorities on educational practice and national needs, responsible through the Minister of Education to the representatives of the people. The framework for such control has been very solidly constructed, upon a really rational design, by the

establishment of the present Board of Education. But if the action of the machinery is to respond to the expectations of its builders, and of the schools who are willing to use it even in the absence of legal compulsion, the right men must be found to drive and oil it, and the amateur, however well connected, must be made to qualify before he is admitted to the works. The old English tradition of a close bureaucracy formed by nominating friends, or appointing, upon examination, young men straight from the University—a bureaucracy which administers, according to its light, the law and is very insistent upon the letter, but which knows little or nothing at first hand about the subject it directs—must give way, in the sphere of education at any rate, to a new and very different tradition of enlightenment and usefulness. We have probably the least corrupt and the least inspired Civil Service in Europe: we must retain the honesty, but as a qualification only. It must no longer be necessary to pull wires, or make a diplomatic marriage, or prove tact by dulness, in order to win an examinership or inspectorship. It must no longer be possible to make untenable the position of a man who wishes to do his own definite task, as he alone can do it, without degrading his office into that of an additional private secretary. The atmosphere of the Board of Education at least must be free from all suspicion of intrigue and personal or party feeling standing in the way of public interests. There must be no undue worship of red tape, and none of the pedantic insistence on the *voie hiérarchique* which damps the enthusiasm of energetic juniors and encourages as ideals the "correct thing" and disinterested sobriety. We must Americanise our methods to the extent of rewarding initiative and keenness wherever we find it, remembering that it was John Nicholson's disregard for stupidity in high places which saved the Punjaub and captured Delhi. We must have a President of the Board who is an acknowledged authority in the educational world and who has the confidence of the public, and we must follow the lead of other nations in paying him the same official stipend as the Minister of War or the Chancellor of the Exchequer, in order that, the position being no longer a stepping-stone, the same man may continue in office as long as the Government by which he is appointed, to the discouragement of autocracy among the permanent officials, who to-day have the power (we make no suggestion that they exercise it) to keep themselves the real masters of the situation by skilfully playing a waiting game until the parliamentary cards are reshuffled. The country is ready to be led to reform by its own responsible Minister, provided

that he knows his business. It will refuse to put its higher education into the hands of a self-centred bureaucracy, however capable and progressive its head mandarin may be.

The Relations of Local and Central Authorities.—We reserve for the following chapters an enumeration of the various steps by which the Board of Education may win the confidence of the nation, more especially of the nation's teachers, and make itself a permanent source of light and strength. We shall here act on the assumption that it will, sooner or later, remedy its defects in order that it may realise its opportunities, and shall now consider what its chief duties must be and what seems likely to be the best machinery for their execution. This involves discussion of the relative place and value of central and local authorities, of outward control and internal freedom. There will inevitably be a considerable difference in the detail of external management between elementary and secondary schools, though the tendency should certainly be in the direction of raising the primary school to the comparative autonomy and variety of the secondary, since it is unthinkable that conditions which would destroy the spirit of a school for the upper and middle classes can be other than pernicious in dealing with the children of the poor. Still, international experience seems agreed that primary education should be subject to a more direct local management than secondary, since the task of the primary school, however difficult it may be, is everywhere practically identical—the giving to the people's children that common basis of all civilised life and higher knowledge of which the necessity cannot be denied to-day even in so reactionary a land as Russia. This simplicity of aim renders elementary education easily comprehensible to all classes, and while the main outlines of the curriculum and a large share of the cost are rightly left in the hands of the central authority, the fact that school attendance is compulsory, and school support a heavy charge on the locality, justifies a very complete delegation of control to local bodies. Yet even in this we have come to see that managers popularly elected *ad hoc* are less likely to possess general ability and width of outlook than ordinary town or district councillors chosen for the broader service of civic administration, and we have therefore tried to stimulate local patriotism and to correlate the various branches of public educational enterprise in the same locality by handing over in County Boroughs the management of the town's elementary schools, technical schools, and, in many cases, secondary schools, to one or more Municipal Education Committees, representing the City

Council, but including persons with expert knowledge of the different types of school.

The Mistakes and Limitations of Local Authorities.—The scheme looks well on paper, and it may be admitted that for elementary education everywhere, and for secondary education occasionally, it has proved highly beneficial in practice. The towns have been given a more direct sense of education as a civic undertaking and responsibility, and have already shown their pride of ownership by a vastly increased expenditure on bricks and mortar and, in a few cases, by a somewhat less economical outlay on staffing and salaries. They have displayed much conscientious energy in the furthering of educational ideals as they understood them: unluckily their light has of necessity failed them when they have attempted to deal with problems which demand the wide and scientific knowledge of the expert. Thus they are still mostly deaf to the warning that technical education is an impossibility unless it is based on a thorough, predominantly literary, general education: they still either starve the local grammar school, which should give this preliminary training, by refusing all funds, or "take it over" and destroy its spirit through ignorance of the fact that a secondary school must educate as well as instruct, and that education is killed when a headmaster is reduced to the level of a second-rate municipal servant, chief shop-walker in a useful knowledge emporium, neither teacher of boys nor leader of men, anxious chiefly to fill his class-rooms with pupils and to avoid friction with colleagues, in order that his demonstrated "organising capacity" may be rewarded by appointment to a larger city clerk-factory, or even to a local directorship of education.[1] Occasionally they build a school after their own pattern in order to ruin a recalcitrant grammar school in which the school service savours of Anglicanism, or they find it cheaper to rechristen a Higher Elementary as a Municipal Secondary School, that the central grant may be increased and the pride of the local parent sweetly flattered. If they allot a few hundred pounds yearly to the old Grammar School of the place, which is giving boys of the district a first-grade education at £12 or £15 a year but is badly in need of money to improve the prospects of its masters, they threaten

[1] We are far from wishing to imply that all Municipal Headmasters are of this type: indeed, those whom we know personally are all devoted pioneers, working for the right tradition. But no one acquainted with our lower Secondary Schools will deny that the type we describe exists, and is in danger of being encouraged and perpetuated by the mistaken policy of the Local Authorities.

intermittently to withdraw the grant unless the internal discipline of the school is made identical with that traditional in elementary education, or because primary education "has the first claim on the rates." In one great English city, after an arrangement had been made that the municipal second-grade school should send on its best boys with scholarships to the grammar school, there to be prepared for the University, both schools sharing the credit of the boys' success, only five boys have been transferred in the last five years, all other local talent having apparently been devoted to permanent atrophy in office and workshop rather than, by courteous collaboration with another school, been given its proper chance. Happily there are instances (notably the London and Lancashire County Councils) of civic liberality, both in dealing with endowed schools and in the conduct of purely municipal enterprises, but on the whole the experience up to date of local control in secondary education is more instructive through its teaching us what to avoid than rich in examples we should do well to follow.

The Real Artificiality of our Local Units of Control.—There is a further difficulty in the way of adequate local administration of higher instruction, arising out of our separation of County Boroughs from the County in which they are situated, and of which they historically form the brain and heart. Whereas in a Swiss Canton the towns, big and little, support their own schools, they also contribute to the maintenance of cantonal education as a whole, and the Central Cantonal authority, after taking a comprehensive survey of the needs of each district, allocates the common funds in the manner most calculated to encourage the establishment of higher schools in places which are easily accessible and which require such provision. In England the County is deprived of the support and guidance of its chief centres of activity: between self-centred County Boroughs lie tracts of amorphous country divided up into Non-County Boroughs and Urban Districts, represented, it is true, by a common Council, but often connected, in their interests and activities, much more closely with the nearest County Borough than with the other component parts of the emasculated entity to which they owe allegiance. A man living at Romiley is more deeply concerned with the provision made for his boy's education in Stockport, a County Borough in Cheshire, or in Manchester, a County Borough in Lancashire, than in the establishment of a Secondary School at Knutsford or in the Wirral Peninsula. Already there has been much need for re-adjustment of burden in the maintenance of

schools which draw many pupils from outside the administrative area, or which happen to lie on the border. Such financial problems are not insuperable and are generally settled with a little common sense, but less wisdom is as a rule displayed in the distribution of educational supply between town and town, district and district, county and county. Machinery that is admirably adapted to improve the condition of roads and stimulate agriculture, breaks down from the nature of the case when it deals with a problem affecting the complex life of those many areas which make up not a County, but a province, or a region. The truth of this may best be seen by considering the marvellous all-round success of our only comprehensive and unified Local Authority, the London County Council, which is daily bringing more order into former chaos and which has shown a conspicuously progressive spirit in the promotion of Secondary Education.

Their Capacity for Furthering Education.—For better or worse, however, we have got our clumsy, well-meaning, rule-of-thumb local machinery, and it remains for us to make all use of it we can, to apply what ingenuity we possess to keeping it bright and smooth-running, scrapping what part of it gets out of gear or out of date, and refraining from using it for the entire manufacture of the finer products which demand at once more individual and more national handling. After all, it is the town and county who benefit by the product, and they are more directly concerned in getting a first-rate article, guaranteed by the State to last, and fashioned with the loving care of the expert workman, than in attempting to keep the making entirely in their own hands. They give generous support, individually and collectively, to their local universities (as a rule more thousands go to their support from city funds than hundreds to help on the grammar school which is accomplishing the equally difficult task of educating an often greater number of future citizens), and yet they do not insist on appointing the professors or dictating to them what subjects should be taught. They spend "whiskey money" and their ratepayers' money lavishly on providing technical schools, although they do not always know what technical education means and presupposes, or realise that the Germans, whom they wish to defeat with their own weapons, treat technical institutes as a vocational type of University, open only to liberally trained youths of eighteen or twenty. Similarly, it is to be hoped that they will more and more support secondary schools for their children when they realise that the spirit these schools inculcate (if allowed the opportunity) is needed for the right

conduct of the town's affairs, and the wider intellectual outlook and trained imagination they impart, demanded imperiously in our individual business enterprises if we are to compete with other nations.

The Duty of Local Authorities.—What, then, in plain language, is to be the rôle of local authorities when they realise the benefit of such education and desire to secure it for their electors' children? This: to see that its provision is entirely adequate and to encourage their citizens to make the best use of the provision that is made. If there is a grammar school in existence equal to the needs of the town, they will increase the income it derives from fees and endowments until it is able to do its work in suitable buildings and with a sufficiently large and well-paid staff. If the endowed school is educating only a fraction of the boys in need of a secondary schooling, they will consider how far it can be extended without ceasing to be a whole in which every unit tells, and after thus getting a definite idea of the purpose and limitation of this school, they will continue (or begin) a grant to it and provide it with proper equipment, and then will set about building another school or schools for the great majority of boys who leave at sixteen, arranging, however, that bright boys who show promise shall, with the consent of their parents and with all necessary financial help, pass on to the grammar school, not later than fourteen, in order that they may be identified with the life of the school, the discipline of which they will later help to maintain. There will be no jealousy or competition (other than healthy rivalry) between the two schools. Each will have its separate task and will aim at achieving perfection within its own limitations: both will co-operate in helping the boys of the town to secure the training for which they are most fitted by nature and circumstance. Perhaps, as in Germany, the future of English secondary schools will lie in the direction of distinct differentiation of aim between school and school, and we shall have Classical Schools and Modern Schools and Semi-Classical Schools, all giving a liberal education and using identical methods, but each laying stress on the particular group of subjects which will be of most use in the future career of its own pupils. But we are still far from having a wide enough secondary *clientèle* to justify such separation, and the Germans themselves are coming to recognise its drawbacks in premature choice of career and encouragement of class distinctions. We shall probably do better by constructing a programme which shall give a sound general education, adapted in its detail to the particular needs of each

school and allowing some choice between ancient and modern languages, and by deferring all specialisation until the age of sixteen. But this is rather the subject of a later section.

Their Wide Sphere of Usefulness.—The chief task then of a Local Authority should be to ensure the adequate supply of different types of education and an unimpeded career for local talent. And it will perhaps find herein an abundance of duties and a sufficiently wide field for useful activity, if it forms a conception of education that is generous and worthy. For it will not only determine that the training of the poorer children shall be so excellent in quality as to compensate in a measure for its insufficient length, but will support with enthusiasm the efforts of the State to solve the problem of unskilled labour and adolescent exploitation and ruin, by compulsory continuation schools and attractive evening classes. It will imitate Germany and America in housing all its schools, elementary and secondary alike, in buildings that are noble in design and complete in equipment, but will set an example to both by providing not merely playgrounds in a yard or on a roof, but real playing-fields, where the greater games of proved educational value can be organised for all. It will make its parks less ornamental and more useful, if it be a town authority, and will light and keep them open after dusk in winter, instead of driving its children into the desolation of its streets. Probably the town will own trams, and then it will find it cheaper, as well as healthier, to plant its schools in the suburbs among the fields, and carry its pupils there for nothing, the noisy sites in the city being sold to cover the cost. If it be a county authority, it will find it better to build, or support, a few secondary schools which are large enough to be efficient, collecting the boys in motors, as they do in America, rather than, as in Wales to-day, multiply the number of such schools at the expense of their essential qualities, since the Secondary School of less than a hundred boys is one only in name. Again, just as each town authority, by the establishment of Trade Schools, and by the institution of various vocational departments in Higher Elementary Schools, will try to give its future foremen the best theoretical and practical preparation for its leading industries, reserving its advanced technical instruction for the youths who have received a liberal training, so each country authority will provide all its schools, elementary and secondary alike, with garden-plots and skilled teachers of nature study, and some of its secondary schools with model-farms and courses of agricultural chemistry, in order that rural education may, for the sons of both labourer

and farmer, become less a deterrent from, than an incentive to, a country life. Local authorities, too, might, with every regard for wise economy, find it expedient to stimulate the boys who will one day be citizens and perhaps councillors, to take pride and interest in their native place, by furnishing every secondary school with maps of the district and copies of charters for its walls, and by making a subvention to its library and museum (even a small French or German town contributes £30 or £40 yearly to the library fund of its Collège or Gymnasium): and in return the school might teach local history and take its boys to see local monuments and antiquities, and, as at Cardiff, dedicate one day a year to a civic festival in honour of the town. Certainly, each Local Authority should maintain a bureau, to give information to all parents as to the payment and prospects in different trades and industries; to ascertain from employers the chief defects of training which practical tests in different spheres would seem to indicate; to keep a complete register of all the schools, public and private, in its district, which shall be easily accessible in every library, catalogued according to type of school, and fully explanatory of the nature and necessity of the training afforded by each type, with a list of the various careers for which such training fits. And it should try to persuade employers of the soundness of the rule which it will apply in all its own appointments, namely, that preference should be given to boys who hold certificates to the effect that they have satisfactorily completed such and such a course in such and such a type of school, and are therefore qualified to undertake the particular kinds of work for which their course has fitted them.

Their Executive Officials.—In order to secure the efficient accomplishment of a task so delicate, manifold, and important, the Local Authority will need the services of the best Director of Education whom a substantial salary will attract, since he must combine width and liberality of outlook, great organising power, and the gift of inspiring confidence and sympathy in teachers, employers, and the general public alike. He should have enjoyed a long and varied experience as teacher and inspector in the same district, and, when once appointed, should be treated with the respect due to an expert and consulted as a responsible guide by the Education Committee. Under his orders will be a number of Inspectors, more in counties than in county boroughs, who will also be picked men of the stuff of which future Directors are made. Their joint duty will be to examine into the material condition and necessities of all schools which receive support

from local funds, to consider the need of increasing the supply of any particular type of education, and, first and foremost, effectively to correlate all grades of instruction and secure the harmonious working of the different parts of the local educational machinery. They will report to the Board of Education on the varying wants of their district, and will voice with the authority of complete knowledge the demands of the locality in respect to the kind of school or schools which it wishes to erect: since the ultimate sanction for any extension of education of which it will bear part of the expense must naturally rest with the State. And if they would increase the value of their recommendations by adding to their weight, local authorities, acting through their Directors, would do well to co-operate, county borough with county borough, county with county, or both types together, in drawing up a joint scheme for the needs of the whole district, in cases where the administrative and the educational areas do not coincide. If local activity proves itself intelligent and constructive, the State will probably be only too happy to give it all encouragement. The same division of labour will hold here as in Germany, the Local Authority making itself responsible for supply of education, and controlling, with State sanction, the *externa* of the schools it maintains, the State regulating, as far as need is, the *interna*—the choice of subjects, the method of teaching them, and the qualifications and remuneration of the men who do the teaching. The towns and counties can be of enormous help to English education if they will only learn the limits of their utility.

Their Rôle in Secondary Education.—In secondary instruction at least their duty is quite clear. They must recognise and assist every school, whatever the precise form of its individual control may be, which proves its efficiency to the satisfaction of the State and which supplies the wants of their area: they must avoid at all costs the introduction into secondary schools of the "religious question" which is still throttling progress in primary schools. They must realise that religion is a private concern of the individual, while education is the pressing need of the public, and that a Roman Catholic or a Unitarian school which properly teaches its own children is as much entitled to ratepayers' money as the "undenominational" school which people of every creed, and no creed, are called upon to support. Local patriotism, too, has suffered for the last fifty years by the decay of the local endowed school, causing, and caused by, the sons of the wealthier middle-classes being sent to boarding schools. If

the towns are to revive this patriotism by being again entrusted with the education of their leading citizens, then their first object must be, by generous aid, to make their grammar schools efficient. It would be worth the cost.

State Control: its Needful Decentralisation.—Let us now turn to consider the functions of the State in respect to education, and the organisation which is likely to enable it to discharge these functions with due regard to national efficiency and local and individual initiative. We have already indicated the spirit in which the State must undertake its task if its control is to be useful and welcome, and it remains for us to suggest the lines on which State supervision should be developed if we are willing to profit by our own past experience and that of other countries. We have seen that Prussia wields her educational jurisdiction through thirteen *Provinzial-Schulkollegien*, and that France, in spite of admitted over-centralisation, delegates a considerable amount of authority to her seventeen *Académies*. It seems in every way expedient that England also should in the future exercise her control, as far as the details of administration are concerned, by provincial boards rather than directly from the centre. Such a policy was advocated by the Taunton Commission of 1867, the late Headmaster of Winchester suggesting that five such boards should be set up. In 1902 Mr. Balfour's Government made no attempt to give effect to this recommendation, but divided authority between towns and counties on the one side and Whitehall on the other. In so far as the nation chiefly needed unification of central machinery, and the local authorities a stimulus to their interest in Secondary Instruction, Mr. Balfour's advisers were right. It was perhaps impossible to decentralise State control before making such control a reality, or to define the exact sphere of County Councils in Secondary Education before these Councils had recognised that such education was within their sphere. But now that the Board has not only shown a healthy vigour in attacking its gigantic task, but is already so overwhelmed with work that it is displaying an unpleasant tendency to postpone vital issues to grappling with detail, while local authorities have generally manifested more zeal than discretion (if either) in the exercise of their new powers, it is probable that the time has come for elaborating a system of State control which shall respond alike to its growing duties and the country's varied needs. If we may venture a tentative opinion as to the main lines on which State authority should develop, we suggest that in a few years nine Provincial Boards be established, which shall

act as outposts of the State in direct touch with the provinces under their jurisdiction.

The Present Inspectoral Districts a Basis for Provincial Boards.—The number is immaterial, and we only hazard nine because the Board has already divided England into nine inspectoral districts, of which it may be useful here to give the list. There are three main groups: the Northern, the Midland, and the Southern. In the Northern group we get the following sub-divisions: (1) *North*, comprising Northumberland, Cumberland, Westmorland, and Durham; (2) *North-West*, Lancashire and Cheshire; (3) *North-East*, Yorkshire. In the Midland group are: (1) *West-Central*, Shropshire, Staffordshire, Herefordshire, Worcestershire, Warwickshire, Gloucestershire, Oxfordshire, and Berkshire; (2) *East-Central*, Derbyshire, Nottinghamshire, Leicestershire, Rutlandshire, Northamptonshire, Huntingdonshire, Buckinghamshire, Bedfordshire, and Hertfordshire; (3) *East*, Lincolnshire, Cambridgeshire, Norfolk, Suffolk, and Essex. In the Southern group we find: (1) *South-West*, Devonshire, Cornwall, Somersetshire, Wiltshire, and Dorsetshire; (2) *Metropolitan*, Middlesex and London; (3) *South-East*, Hampshire, Sussex, Surrey, and Kent. Such an arrangement corresponds fairly closely to the strongly marked local characteristics of these various districts, and could easily be made the basis for a sympathetic and comprehensive control of real natural unities. In England, as in France, it is less the county, with its blurred outline, than the region or province that inspires, for this connotes a racial and temperamental kinship. We are citizens of a town, then of a district, last of a country. Though it is likely that the number of such provinces will grow, through gradual increase of schools, just as the school-provinces of Prussia have been raised from eight to thirteen since 1865, and as English bishoprics are being readjusted to-day, yet as they stand they are singularly well-contrived for educational purposes, since all alike are already provided with full-grown Universities or thriving University Colleges, the work of which it is necessary to correlate with other grades of instruction. Thus, in the North, there is the University of Durham and University College, Newcastle; in the North-West the Universities of Manchester and Liverpool; in the North-East, the Universities of Leeds and Sheffield. In the Midlands, Oxford and Birmingham are West-Central Universities; Cambridge is in the East; and Oxford, Cambridge, and University College, Nottingham, are all in, or near, the East-Central district. The new University of Bristol would be in relations with both the West-Central and the South-

West district, and in the last Exeter would play its part. The Metropolitan district would have London University, and London and Southampton could be connected with the South-Eastern. Such details are easily settled, and the growth of Tertiary Instruction will fill such bigger gaps as those displayed to-day by the East-Central and South-Eastern districts. The important thing to remember is that England, like Wales, will find that the extension of Secondary Education is the necessary condition of the success of University teaching, and that the interests of both are best served by their being brought into close relationship within a definite area. And while we have no desire to see English Universities made part of the State machinery as in France, but are convinced that a very real degree of University freedom will, here as in Germany, be the best safeguard against bureaucracy, yet it is certain that all our Universities, old and new alike, must be made to use their funds, whatever their source, for the good of national education, and to adapt their programmes to the intellectual needs of the people at large, not to the tradition of a caste. It is true that Oxford and Cambridge are rather national than local institutions, and we shall consider below their proper relations with the highest type of school; but this is no reason why they should not take a useful share in the educational development of particular provinces as well.

The Duties of the Provincial Boards.—Let us then imagine such Provincial Boards set up, and consider their functions. At the head of each would be a State Commissioner, qualified by teaching, by administration at Whitehall, and by inspecting. Under him would be three Chief Inspectors, for Technical, Secondary, and Elementary Schools, each of whom would in turn be in command of the necessary number of subordinate inspectors. The Commissioner would frequently consult an Educational Council, or Provincial Consultative Committee, which would be made up of teaching representatives, in proper proportion, of the Universities, Technical and Commercial Institutes, Endowed Schools, Municipal and County Secondary Schools, Elementary Schools, and Private Schools, and of nominees of bodies responsible for the finances of these different types of institutions. The whole Council would as a rule only discuss matters which affected the general educational policy of the district, but the nominees of particular interests would be asked to give their opinion whenever those interests were involved. All issues except those of national importance would be settled on the sole authority of the Commissioner,

though appeal would be granted in the first place to the Provincial Educational Council, and ultimately, if backed by a majority of this Council, to a constituted Court of Appeal at Whitehall. Such appeals would be rare when rights and duties became clear by practice, and in all cases the aim of the Commissioner should be to meet the wishes of the schools and authorities, unless some vital educational principle seemed to him to be involved. His object would be to encourage local and individual initiative wherever the field of experiment was hopeful, and he would consider spontaneous effort and varied adaptation to varying needs, not sterile symmetry and uniformity, the best proof of his success. In the hands of the Commissioner would lie the administration of endowments; the provision, with the collaboration of suitable schools and the Universities, of courses for the training of teachers; the inspection, by experts in their subject, of the different schools as regards both teaching and equipment; the adaptation, with the consent of Whitehall, of the curricula to the needs of the district and the special work of particular schools; the sanctioning of new schools or alterations of premises, in consultation with a government architect; the fixing of fees in accordance with the character of the school and the means of its *clientèle*; the registration of all schools in the province, through the agency of local authorities; lastly, the sending of regular reports to Whitehall, which would retain the right to be consulted on important issues and to veto all acts and measures of which for reasons of high policy, it disapproved. The Commissioner would of course consult his colleagues in dealing with the branch of which each was in charge: any dispute between a Chief Inspector and a Commissioner would be referred to Whitehall.

The Duties of the Central Office.—Having thus, to its own benefit and that of the country, delegated to Provincial Boards the detail of its administration, the Board of Education at Whitehall would be free to devote its capacity to larger issues, and to perform its true duties of enlightening and leading the education of the country. Its chief officials would be the President and Parliamentary Secretary, the Permanent Secretary, the Directors of Technological, Secondary and Elementary Education, with the necessary army of subordinate examiners (who should be ex-masters), clerks, and statisticians. If, together with other Government Offices, it would fill its lower posts with fewer men at a higher rate of pay, and fling open the door of advancement to all who proved themselves really able and keen, by other

than examination tests, it would probably find its work done better, and at less expense. It would do well to retain a staff of General Inspectors (a dozen should suffice), each of whom should be past master of one subject, and should inspect the teaching of this subject in one grade of school, under widely varying conditions, thoughout the country. Such specialists would be able to acquire the best and freshest information on teaching methods and other details of school administration, and to hand on their knowledge to teachers and provincial inspectors alike. Their ranks would be filled from the provincial inspectorate and would be thinned by appointments to Commissionerships.

Its Inspiration of Sound Curricula and Methods.—Through co-operation between the General Inspectors and the Consultative Committee, which would be more representative of teachers than to-day, the Board would be able to outline the different curricula suitable to different types of schools, and to furnish such general directions on the best way, as tested by experience, of distributing and treating each subject as it has already given on the *Teaching of History in Secondary Schools*.[1] It would be equally careful to insist on a substantial obedience to these instructions, and to allow all possible freedom to masters, schools, and provinces in adapting them in their detail to the particular conditions and needs of each form and school and district; and when once we possess a body of teachers who are trained and competent there will be little danger in increasing the amount of individual liberty. We must first generalise the methods which have proved their excellence, and when we have established a tradition, the educational coach can be driven with a very loose rein. As for the objection that substantial uniformity of programme produces a dead level of mediocrity, we can only say that those who make it can never have entered a succession of Continental class-rooms where the same subject was being treated by different men. Had they done so, they would have met with far more individuality and life than in most of our own schools, elastic, varied, and free though these claim to be. Abroad we have found only one real uniformity—that of competence and knowledge: at home, with brilliant exceptions, there still persists the uniform badness which comes of amateur teaching and fact-cramming for examinations. The object of the Board will be to secure soundly educational curricula, and the necessary unity of treatment for each subject throughout the course. It will inspire and guide our masters, not reduce them to machines.

[1] Wyman, *id.*

A Summary of its Other Functions.—At the many important services that the National Board of Education alone can render, and which it *must* render if it is to justify its existence, we have only room to hint. It must certainly set about preparing the much-needed conspectus of national education in all its grades: it must be made, together with nominees of the Consultative Committee, the ultimate legal Court of Appeal for cases that are sent on by the Provincial Boards for its decision; it must immediately control the *interna*, the strictly educational work of all schools, by organising the teaching profession, outlining the curricula, and directing all examination and inspection; it must register its teachers into a profession, and, as we shall explain in another chapter, secure that they are properly qualified, justly promoted, reasonably paid, universally retired on adequate pensions, and, except in extreme cases, guaranteed a permanent career; meantime, it must at once constitute, by getting the necessary legislation, a Court or Courts of Appeal for cases of dismissal. For an Assistant Master the proper Court would probably be one of five members, two nominated by the Board, the rest by the Consultative Committee, the Headmasters' Association and the Assistant Masters' Association. The Board must keep in touch with all the various professional associations of teachers, whether they are united by interest in a subject, as mathematics, classics, or modern languages, or by a common status, like Head or Assistant Masters. Only by welcoming suggestions from these quarters can it keep its policy in harmony with the best expert opinion and change suspicion into willing co-operation. Then, again, in its present Department of Special Inquiries and Reports it has an instrument capable of being made indefinitely valuable: (1) as a bureau of professional information on all educational subjects, in constant touch with the best authorities and freely distributing its reports throughout the country; (2) as a bureau for the exchange of teachers with other nations, and for general collaboration with our colonies and with foreign countries, in the pursuit of efficiency and improvement; and (3) as a much-needed bureau for giving all parents who apply the fullest possible account of the conditions and present prospects of the various professions and liberal careers open to their sons, just as we have suggested that the local authorities should inform parents about the nature of the openings in local trades and industries. Finally, whatever educational functions are exercised by the Civil Service Commissioners and the Board of Agriculture should be transferred to the Board of Education, and this department

should also be invested with whatever power of control the State ultimately finds it needful to assume over the Universities, by virtue of their public character and to ensure their national utility.

Effect of State Control on Different Types of School.—It may now be useful to consider the precise effect of the kind of public control that we advocate upon the different types of school which the country already possesses. It is obvious that we must use and develop our present material, just as we must be careful to maintain and spread all English traditions of school life and management which have proved their value in the past. We are not without hope of persuading the reader that an enlightened State supervision would make as much for freedom, variety, and elasticity as for guaranteed efficiency and economy of effort. A school runs no more risk than does a boy, of losing its individuality by being helped and guided to its highest self-realisation. And, as has been well said, it is more important to be right than to be original.

On Elementary Schools.—Beginning with our foundations, we shall reorganise our Elementary Schools so that they shall be equally effective in giving the clever boy who is to climb the educational ladder a sound basis for subsequent knowledge, and in providing the average child with an all-round primary education, in which a living grasp of a few things shall replace the passive reception, and speedy ejection of masses of unassimilated facts. We shall do this by greatly reducing town-school classes, by giving much greater autonomy to the head of each school in settling the details of its work, and above all by getting a race of liberally trained and well-paid men and women to enter this exacting field of national service. Refinement makes refinement. The Elementary School must not merely aim at imparting useful knowledge, but at teaching children to think and act for themselves and at inspiring ideals of citizenship and culture, and by compulsory Continuation Schools the seed thus sown must be helped to maturity. The instruction of the young child must be chiefly human, with English literature and stories of past and present England as its centre. In the higher classes the work must be so graded that the boy may no longer mark time for two years, but, in addition to deepening his general knowledge, acquire some subject suited to his taste and the needs of the locality, if possible passing, then or later, to a school which is definitely adapted to give a thorough manual and industrial training, whether it be called a Trade School or a Junior Technical Institute. But while real vocational

teaching is thus provided, at least half the time in school should be devoted to purely humanistic subjects, in order that a man may be made, as well as an engineer or clerk or foreman. And in all schools alike the corporate life must be encouraged, by games and school societies, and by every form of activity that makes healthy and happy children. It must be remembered, if we incline to shrink from the cost of all this, that a responsible democracy which controls an Empire can only be equal to its task if it secures for all its children alike sound bodies and sound minds. Here, too, as in all branches of education, the problem is of national importance and can be solved by national effort alone.

The financing of Elementary Education.—Already the local authorities are crying bankruptcy and pleading that the State should bear part of the expense of such measures as Medical Inspection (which should be extended to every type of school) and relieve the ratepayer of a greater portion of his burden in the maintenance of Elementary Schools. It is rarely realised that the incidence of rates and of taxes falls on nearly the same shoulders, and that it is a matter of some indifference whether you take money from the left pocket or the right. Reduced rates rarely mean reduced rents, and even if they did, the poor man might find the gain balanced by increased indirect taxation. So long, however, as a man pays cheerfully a lump sum to the Exchequer, but considers himself ill-used when asked to settle a local bill of which he knows the separate items, it is worth while taking advantage of this attitude to extend the scope of national enterprise, by paying heavy grants towards providing what is needed by the people at large and by insisting that the people gets its needs satisfied. Only the State can demand and secure the doubling of the number of Elementary teachers, and the State alone can help poorer boroughs and country districts to efficient schools. At the same time the encouragement of local initiative and local endeavour is so vital a principle, especially in Elementary Education, that it seems certain that, apart from exceptionally poor districts, the national should bear some fixed ratio to the local contribution. Within the last ten years the proportion borne by the Government grants to primary schools has fallen from 62½ per cent. to 50¼ per cent. This demands readjustment if the local authorities are to continue their spontaneous efforts towards efficiency, and in the future it seems proper that the State should bear at least half the cost of improvements involving a maintenance expenditure beyond £3 per scholar, and two-thirds of the cost up to this amount. These figures deal with

Elementary Schools as they are: if they are to realise their function by acquiring playing-fields and halving their classes, the expense will be far greater and the share of the State should amount to at least 75 per cent. of the whole. Moreover, the grant must be a block-grant to each school that proves itself efficient, and be based upon the average attendance during the year.

On Private Schools.—When we turn to Private Schools we are faced with a difficult problem. The name embraces efficient and expensive schools in which the boys of the wealthier classes receive their preparatory training, schools like the Forest School and Abbotsholme which are "public" in the narrow sense of the word, middle-class boarding schools at the seaside to which delicate boys of all ages are sent, and squalid houses in ignoble streets in which an illiterate man or woman, with a sham degree, gives a mockery of education to the children of parents whose pride despises the Elementary School but whose purse is unequal to the purchase of a training not only select but sound. Here, if anywhere, is there need for stern discrimination and the separation of wheat from chaff. We are unhappily far from the day when we shall see an earl's son and a blacksmith's son sitting side by side on the benches of an English primary school, though it used to be a common enough sight in Scotland, and to-day in America a President's boy is not held contaminated by contact with the children of immigrants and tradesmen. For this fraternity we are still too feudal, or too uncertain of our own social rank, to run needless risks in the education of our offspring, and it is moreover true that, until we have readjusted our curricula and reduced Elementary School classes to workable limits, we cannot consider the public primary school as the best instrument for giving the instruction preparatory to Secondary Education. The ambition of a father to send his boy to a school where he will get the individual attention indispensable to rapid progress is entirely praiseworthy, and reasons of health often indicate the boarding school among the hills or at the seaside.

The sifting of Wheat from Chaff.—It is therefore the first duty of the State to insist on a preliminary inspection, both of the premises and teaching, of every private school, and to recognise those schools which pass both tests as efficient for the giving of a certain definite type of instruction. Those which fail to come up to the proper standard (which will be low at first and raised every year) must receive notice that they will be suppressed unless they attain this standard within a given time, and the inspection must continue yearly

and be yearly more insistent in its demands, until the instruction is up to the level of that given in public establishments. No mercy must be shown to the impostor: he must betake himself to a walk of life less prejudicial to the public interest, and, so far from deserving compensation, rather merits punishment for his career of trickery. On the other hand the genuine schools will have everything to gain from public recognition and guarantee, in return for which they will have to submit to periodic State inspection, and to make all future appointments on their staff from the authorised register of qualified men, who, whether serving in public schools or not, will be secured a salary scale with a fixed minimum, and who will probably demand more than the ordinary rate of pay since they will lose the advantages of public service. Recognised Private Schools will be allowed to present their pupils for certain entrance scholarships at Secondary Schools on the same terms as Elementary Schools, and the few which give an all-round education to older boys, like Bedales or Forest School, will be considered as qualifying schools for those public appointments where more is demanded than the mere passing of a public examination. For the time being, it may in certain districts be desirable to make use of a good private school that is satisfactorily supplying local needs rather than build a public establishment: such a school will then enter into an agreement with the county that its tuition fees shall be kept at a fixed level, and in return receive an annual grant to improve its teaching qualifications. But the grant must be withdrawn if efficiency is not maintained, and in any case the town or county must take over the management, or build an alternative school, after a definite number of years. There must be State inspection, to prevent any suspicion of undue influence, but no State grant. The principle that the State should support any institution run for private profit is intolerable. It is a perfectly proper and natural thing that private schools should exist, if they prove their competence. They are an excellent outlet for the energies of reformers and the grievances of minorities, and the best of them have in the past made useful experiments, especially in the education of young children. If they provide a curriculum of their own devising, and parents are willing to pay extra that their sons may follow it, then the State should see that the teachers are qualified and eagerly watch results. But such experimental schools are really the proper province of the State or Local Authority and a matter of public enterprise: the two in connection with the Education Department of the Victoria University have already proved their value. The duty of the

central and local authorities is to support all schools which supply a public need on lines of which the State approves, whatever the precise form of their immediate control, provided they are not conducted for the financial benefit of an individual or a company. For the State it is equally unsound to fine a public school by halving its grant because it gives denominational or dogmatic teaching (incomprehensible to children though such teaching is proved to be), and to diminish the risks of private adventure in education.

On Preparatory Schools.—The essence of Secondary Education is to give that all-round training which is only attainable in a big school with adequate equipment and playing-fields. With rare exceptions, no private schools for older boys will be equal to these requirements. Private enterprise to-day is most efficiently displayed in Preparatory Schools, passing on their pupils to the great public boarding schools at the age of fourteen, and to the Grammar Schools at the age of ten or twelve. We shall touch later upon the reforms in the junior curriculum which are most pressing, and shall now ask the question why the education of young boys in this country should be left in private hands, however competent these hands may be. It is bad for the nation that it should cost between £100 and £120 to keep a little boy at a private boarding school because an individual is running a great risk and has placed all his capital in the concern. Not only does such a system deter able men without capital from entering upon the fascinating work of teaching young boys, but it is undignified for a great nation to leave so important a task to private enterprise. We have seen that Germany and France have their *public* schools, *Vorschulen* and *Petits Lycées*, for juniors, often quite distinct from the real Secondary School, and with their own staff and chief Many public schools in the country have started Junior Schools in separate buildings, and, as we all know, a great deal of the teaching in our Secondary Day Schools ($\frac{9}{31}$ in schools "under the Board") is really preparatory in character. It seems to us that, in the country, junior public schools under State control might well be founded to educate the little boys of the richer classes, and send them on, when they reach the Fourth Form, to the senior schools which their parents elect, and that every Day School should organise its own Preparatory School or Schools. Manchester Grammar School has three in different suburbs, all under its management and acting as feeders of trained boys, and the principle is capable of indefinite extension in all towns. And, rarely as we dissent from anything Prof. Sadler writes,

we cannot agree with his contention[1] that such schools or departments should receive no State support. They supply a public want and provide parents who desire it, with expert individual teaching for their little boys, if they are willing to pay from £9 to £15 a year. The Board of Education already pays £2 a year for each ex-elementary boy between ten and twelve, but if young boys are to be taught by a properly paid staff this grant must be increased and generalised from local and central sources, until it is at least equal to the amount spent on training a boy in the Elementary Schools of the district. Young boys' parents are also rate and tax payers.

Turning now to Education higher than Primary (which, whether given in the Elementary or in the Preparatory School, may be supposed to stop at twelve), since we have already touched on the vocational bent to be given to the top classes of the Elementary School proper, we may follow Prof. Sadler in dividing Secondary Schools into three types: (1) Higher Elementary Schools, giving an advanced type of primary instruction to boys who stay at school till they are fifteen; (2) Secondary Schools with a lower secondary course, for boys between twelve and sixteen; (3) Higher Secondary Schools, including Grammar and Public Schools, with full courses, lower and higher, for boys between twelve and eighteen or nineteen. In all cases the age limit must be sufficiently flexible, since boys' minds mature at different ages, and it is uneducational and wrong to dismiss a boy from the first type of school because he is fifteen, in spite of his capacity to benefit by another year's instruction. What is really important is to differentiate clearly between Higher Elementary and Secondary Schools, and rather to introduce the Secondary spirit into the first than, as there is a tendency to-day, the Elementary spirit into the second.

On Higher Elementary Schools.—The Higher Elementary School will find its chief field in towns too small to support a good Secondary School, and in large cities. Its curriculum should be adapted, apart from certain general-educational essentials, to the needs of the district, and should be based on a thorough training in English subjects, practical science and mathematics, possibly French, certainly handicraft. It should be at once liberal and useful, and its doors should be open to all who can profit by it, through a liberal provision of scholarships, with or without maintenance, on the part of the local authority. It should have a highly developed corporate life, and if necessary raise its fees to £3 or £4 a year. In this school, not in the Secondary, should

[1] *Report on Secondary and Higher Education in Essex*, p. 37.

be found the vast majority of boys who at present "finish" by staying a year or two at the local Grammar School without completing its lower course. They will gain more by deepening their previous knowledge than by merely breaking ground in higher subjects which they will never begin to master. It will be the duty of the State to encourage a proper supply of this most useful type of school.

On Municipal and County Lower Secondary Schools.—The Lower Secondary School, which as a rule will be the type provided by Municipal and County Authorities, will then be free to do its proper work. Its programme, which we shall discuss in another section, will, with all needful modifications of detail, be the same in spirit and purpose as that for the lower course of the Grammar School. It will, as the definition runs, "offer to each of its scholars, up to sixteen, a general education, physical, mental, and moral, given through a complete graded course of instruction of wider scope and more advanced degree than that given in elementary schools." In fact it will be like the German *Realschule*, which differs from the *Oberrealschule* only in stopping short before the more highly specialised three final years. This is the type of school most certain to increase in number in England, and therefore most in need of hearty support from the locality and firm guidance by the State. Such a school should be, in every sense of the word, a town or county school, for which the local authority would erect a building worthy of its purpose and provide a maintenance fund worthy of the building. The school should be open only to those boys whose parents would guarantee that they should complete the course, and scholarships should involve the same obligation. The fees should be adapted to meet the financial capacity of the neighbourhood, and there should be no rigid uniformity between district and district. At the same time, the tendency should be to charge slightly higher fees than to-day, since a few extra pounds would be no deterrent to parents who knew the value of the training received, and would increase the efficiency of the school without unduly taxing the ratepayer. The local school should be managed by a small committee[1] of men of liberal education and leisure, if possible Old Boys of a public day school, who would not be so ignorant of what a Secondary Day School should be as are the men trained in an

[1] Not only should the governors or managers of each school be few in number, but the local Education Committee will find its efficiency to be in inverse ratio to its size. In America the last thirty years' experience has reduced such boards from hundreds to tens and fives.

elementary or wealthy boarding school. The Managers should then try to introduce the public-school tradition into a new element which badly needs it, by appointing for some time to come an old public-school man as headmaster when the post falls vacant, paying him liberally, and giving him a free hand, with teaching and leading, not clerking, as his function. He should always be allowed to choose his staff and should be held responsible for the success of the school. Above all, playing-fields should be generously provided and games funds supported. The model should be, in short, the best type of Grammar School, and the chief object of ambition to make the school so popular and so successful that the State should convert it into a Higher Secondary School and consent, if need be, to the establishment of another local school to duplicate the lower course. The outlining of the curriculum and the inspection of teaching should rest with the State, as in every type of Secondary School.

On Local Endowed or "Grammar" Schools.—The impetus already given by central control to the work of the Grammar Schools of the country has been enormous, and will do more than anything else to restore them to their old leadership in Secondary Education. The local Endowed School is the historical public school, open to rich and poor alike, immemorially connected with the older Universities, dispensing freely the higher culture of the time. Nearly all the older so-called "public" schools were originally Grammar Schools for the locality, the boarders being "foreigners" sent from a distance to enjoy, in common with the day-boys, the benefits of cheap and erudite teaching, and we have seen that the establishment of caste boarding schools of a non-local character is a development of the last seventy years, and has been at once the effect and cause of the decline of the local school. It seems, however, certain that the public day school, with or without a minority of boarders, will prove in England, as in other countries, the chief national type of Secondary School, and now that it has at last secured the long-delayed recognition and help of the State, as being the best instrument to hand for the spread of higher instruction, it is likely to win back a large portion of the patronage and interest of parents who to-day send away their sons as boarders to distant schools. Happily, the Grammar Schools have always, even in their darkest days, maintained the liberal traditions of their past, and been staffed by the same type of University man as the masters in Public Schools. Now that increased funds permit them to extend their corporate life, and that growing enlightenment on the part of

the Board of Education bids fair to leave them the unfettered application in detail of a sound curriculum, they are bound to grow in prestige and usefulness and, as a common meeting-ground for boys of all classes, will do more than anything else to break down the barrier of class ignorance which fosters class distinctions. But in order to fulfil their function with the perfection of which they are capable, they still require generous and unconditioned support from town authorities (or individual benefactors) for improved buildings and adequate equipment, since their endowments are generally small; and, above all, they must receive from some source, whether central or local, a sufficient sum to increase the number, and double the stipends, of their masters. This, as we shall show in a later chapter, is the crying need and first condition of all progress, and it is for the State to see that it is met. When it has once secured well-paid experts as teachers and outlined the curriculum, the State will do well to leave untouched the traditional powers of the Headmaster, relations with staff apart, and to retain the old governing bodies, so long as they are sufficiently representative of the locality, and have their powers legally defined, as its instrument of direct control. As a rule such governors have proved efficient in the past, and their retention is the best security against bureaucratic and local despotism alike.[1] The golden rule will be that the town shall help, the State support and guide, but the old spirit and the old form of each school remain, except in the case of proved abuses. It would be as disastrous to scrap our present school supply, as Prof. Armstrong recommends, and start afresh on a *tabula rasa*, as to leave it unsystematised and unenlightened. The life of a school is freedom in non-essentials: such freedom will be best preserved by modelling municipal schools on the grammar-school tradition, and bringing both under the impartial and liberal control of a Provincial Board.

On Public Schools.—At the present moment the Public Schools stand at the parting of the ways. The result of the rapid advance to wealth and power of the manufacturing and commercial *bourgeoisie* during the last century, of the simultaneous extension of our empire, and of the decay of local patriotism through the increasing intricacy and mobility of

[1] A wonderfully effective governing body, as Mill Hill proves, can be made up of Old Boys. Though only suitable in cases where the School turns out a great number of men of light and leading, and though it always runs the risk of inbreeding a stereotyped tradition, such a constitution, where the Old Boys are both keenly patriotic and enlightened, can be singularly helpful to a school.

national life, has been that the boarding school has in England decupled its province, by appealing at once to the snobbishness of the plutocrat, the necessity of the expatriated father, and the convenience of the migratory household of to-day. Through the influence of Arnold, the insistence of State Commissioners, and the pressure of public opinion, the Public Schools have cast off much of the old Adam and put on something of the new. In order to compete successfully for boys, they have reformed their housing and feeding, and sometimes established a modern side. They generally produce a race of well-bodied, well-mannered, well-meaning boys, keen at games, devoted to their school, ignorant of life, contemptuous of all outside the pale of their own caste, uninterested in work, neither desiring nor revering knowledge. For the most part they are so expensive as to be prohibitive to the poorer professional man, unless his family is as limited as his income, and yet, like the Universities, they continue to award scholarships without regard to the needs of the recipient. Their intellectual success is measured by the distinctions won in University or Army examinations by the few bright boys whose brains they have bought from the professional crammers who run Preparatory Schools: over their failure to educate their average product to write a simple essay, work an average sum, construe at sight an easy page of Latin or speak an intelligible French sentence, they draw a discreet veil, or deplore the low level of present-day ability. And yet they alone of English schools retain the majority of their boys up to the age of eighteen or nineteen, and alone exact fees which, apart from endowments, should be large enough to purchase the best teaching and equipment in the world. At last, however, there is an opportunity afforded them to remedy their defects, while retaining their best characteristics, in the demand, backed by nearly all the ablest of their own Headmasters, that they should take their proper place in the front rank of a national system, and become as intellectually effective as they are already, at their best, exemplary in their physical robustness and their development of corporate life. At the present time they are not merely individual, but wantonly individualistic, in their ignorance of what is taking place in the shape of experiment or reform in schools of their own and other types: their only bond of union is a Headmasters' Conference, which confines its energy to passing resolutions as to the desirability of major changes which it has no power to carry out, and of minor reforms which nine Headmasters out of ten never make effective because of their own indifference and the passive resistance of their colleagues.

The Public School curriculum is in part adapted to meet the wishes of parents who are not necessarily experts in educational science, and in part forced upon them by the tyranny of University Matriculations and Scholarship examinations. Often crying evils of internal administration go unremedied because they are bound up with the vested interests of Boarding-house Masters, and, as we shall show in a later chapter, the stipends of the majority of the staff are shamelessly starved in order to pay for new buildings that may advertise the school. The finances are muddled by an amateur management, which often hands over more thousands to the Headmaster than hundreds to the average assistant, which leaves the chief source of income, the boarding-fee, to be monopolised by a few senior men, and which generally considers the sound rules of business, economy in details and avoidance of debt, inapplicable in institutions which educate an English aristocracy. "Variety and elasticity" in teaching practice means that the ordinary master (there are many splendid exceptions) stumbles through the same few pages year after year, stereotyping his mistakes and losing his interest, neither knowing nor caring about the methods of his colleagues or the practices of other schools or nations. The one check upon teaching incapacity that has been devised is the terminal examination of every boy in every subject, by which a week's instruction is lost in order that masters may examine each other, and, with what heart or honesty is in them, denounce each other's shortcomings to their chief. If Public Schools submitted to the form of national control which we advocate, and which seems probable, they would in the future be staffed by masters of guaranteed capacity, who would be allowed to teach without their work being interrupted by degrading tests, or stultified by the cramming of boys for the incompatible demands of endlessly various external examinations. Their curriculum would not be dictated by the Universities and the Army, and in turn they would no longer dictate the curriculum of the Preparatory Schools. The masters would be free to apply their individual gifts to training boys to thoughtfulness and self-expression, within the wide limits of a carefully drawn-up course. They would have a common standard of achievement with their colleagues in other schools, and instead of ploughing the sand they would be at last rewarded with results, since failure and indifference would be exceptional, were a rational curriculum adapted to the different capacities and tastes of their pupils. From inspectors they would receive counsel and encouragement, and, in the place of struggling on in

darkness and isolation, would be kept informed of successful experiments elsewhere, and stimulated to a more useful rivalry than the scholarship-winning of to-day. Boarding-houses would always be the property of the school, and be inspected by men invested by the State with that power to check abuses and defects for which Headmasters often sigh in vain. And since the Public Schools have shown themselves incapable of paying their masters an adequate wage, they should not be too proud to devote to this purpose the grant which State recognition would probably secure. The master of twenty-five boys would teach them with better heart if he were £125 a year the richer. And since in the future the supervision of income and expenditure would devolve upon the State, as the legal controller of public property and endowments devoted to education, in spite of the salaries of the assistant masters being greatly improved and the teaching equipment modernised, a sound economy of finance would certainly result in a considerable reduction of the cost of a Public School training, to the advantage both of the parent, now often sorely taxed, and of the Public Schools themselves, since they would gain in usefulness what they lost in exclusiveness. That immediate State support, as well as permanent State guidance, is needed by these schools to-day, is obvious to any one who knows the precarious financial position of many of them, often crippled with debt and sensitive to the smallest ebb of trade prosperity. As time goes on, they might well take up again the local character which they have lost, and regain their contact with life by sharing the boy's education with his home. In any case they cannot be allowed to persevere in an antinational policy through refusing State control. Some ten years ago a great majority of their Headmasters definitely promised a Board of Education representative that they would welcome inspection, and if the present law on Endowed Schools only authorises inspection of premises, and not of teaching, then the law must be altered. Force, however, should be unnecessary if only the Public Schools will realise that a persistence in the old attitude of baronial self-sufficiency will mean ultimate stranding in a backwater, while the national vessel of Secondary Education sails gaily past them, and by its combination of a moderate tariff with every modern improvement draws from them most of their present connection.

On the Reform of Examinations.—In no direction do Secondary Schools need the enfranchisement which the State alone can bestow more urgently than in the matter of examinations. While in the past the stimulus afforded

by University enterprise in testing school work was highly beneficent, the morbid development of the examination cult is making real education an impossibility in this country. The various and often conflicting demands of professional societies, University Matriculations, and the Army Council must be unified into acceptance of a common leaving-certificate, in accordance with the practice of France and Germany. Already the Northern Universities have admitted the principle by forming a Joint Matriculation Board, and the Oxford and Cambridge Board has long been working towards some degree of unification. The best English authorities join to-day in asking for two State certificates, a Lower, granted on the completion of a four years' course in a recognised Secondary School, and a Higher, given to scholars who have added to this encyclopædic course some three years' advanced work. The condition of entering boys for such certificates should be an Inspector's statement that the school is efficient in teaching, organisation, and equipment (including playing-fields), and they should be awarded (1) on the result of an examination jointly conducted by representatives of the Universities, who have taught in schools of the type they examine, and by the masters of the school, under the presidency of a member of the Provincial Board; (2) on the boy's past record as shown in his *livret scolaire*, a book kept in his own possession, and containing an official statement of his progress in each form. It is not possible or desirable that a school should have an exclusive connection with the Universities which happen to lie inside the same Province, but it is eminently desirable that each school should form a special connection with one or more Universities which should take part in examining it, and accept its Higher Certificate in lieu of Matriculation. This last test might well be reserved for the exceptional needs of poorer or older students who wished to enter a University without having enjoyed a regular Secondary training. The Matriculation fees, which are so precious in the sight of English Universities in their present poverty, should be made good by a State grant for every boy examined, or by a portion of the fee which might be exacted from the parents of boys who enter for the Certificate. While it is likely that the Provincial Board would co-operate with the local Universities in awarding both Higher, and Lower Certificates to most schools, just as they would unite in adjusting the curriculum to provincial needs, it is reasonable that non-local Public Schools and the great Day Schools which have a connection with Oxford and Cambridge

should, for the Higher Certificate only, submit some of their boys to examination by a Special Board, composed of representatives of these Universities and of the State, who should elaborate a scheme which might retain Greek as a compulsory qualification for all prospective candidates for Honours in a "literary" School or Tripos, and Latin for all intending students without exception. On the other hand, the ordinary Certificates, both Higher and Lower, should always admit alternative subjects, provided they are of equivalent educational value, and though offering slight variations in different provinces, should strictly represent a common standard of achievement, since they would be given a national, not merely local, currency. The chief qualification, we cannot too much insist, must be the satisfactory completion of a *course* in a school that gives an all-round education: the examination at the end must occupy a subordinate place. The State should insist on these certificates as indispensable to all who seek positions in Government Service, and should encourage their recognition by local authorities and private employers. The certificates would replace examinations preliminary to the professions, since they would represent all necessary variety of special knowledge, and would serve as qualifying tests for the Army. Much, too, would be gained by the Board of Education taking over the conduct of the examinations for the higher Civil appointments; in this way it could co-operate with the Universities in devising an ideal training. University teachers, too, might well be used by the State as occasional inspectors in special subjects, but they must then be the State's representatives, and invested with full authority to enforce their recommendations. In Public Schools to-day a University inspection is a mere nine days' wonder, the "suggestions" of which are quietly shelved or forgotten. The essence of all inspection is that it should be regular, conversant with the needs of schools, and provided with the necessary sanctions.

Scholarships.—The original purpose of scholarships was to assist the education of clever boys who were too poor to attend school without such help. We have seen that in the Public Schools and Universities they have remained a recognition of ability but, for the most part, have lost all connection with poverty. The sons of the rich have seized the poor boy's heritage, and, to the amazement of foreigners, English parents, whatever their wealth, think it creditable to accept charity in educating their children. Yet, endowments being limited, for every rich boy educated free a needy boy

is robbed of his chance of self-improvement. The fact that the term "scholar" implies distinction, though an admirable tribute to the poor boys whose ability and energy gave it this connotation, is an insufficient excuse for taking money as well as glory. The State should see that the money goes to poverty and merit; if the glory is shared by "honorary" scholars, so much the better for all concerned. Poverty must, of course, be interpreted in the sense of inability to dispense with help in getting a particular kind of education. A boy may well be too poor to go to Winchester unaided who could be trained at a day school without assistance. And the amount of a boy's scholarship at the University and Public School should never be announced; it should be proportioned exactly to his father's means.

(1) **In Day Schools.**—With regard to Day Schools it is clear that, in view of the comparative lowness of the fee (generally representing about half the amount spent on each boy's education), the greater number of free places will justly be allotted to boys from the Elementary School. The clever sons of middle-class parents should be only honorary scholars, except in cases of real poverty, to meet which certain scholarships could, if necessary, be filled by candidates from preparatory schools. The Elementary School children should be selected, when not older than twelve, by an examination in primary subjects, out of a number whose record proved general ability and physical fitness, and whose parents could guarantee their remaining at the Secondary School until sixteen. To the scholarship the Local Authority should add a sufficient maintenance allowance, especially for older boys, in cases where the parents would suffer by the withdrawal of their son's earning power. At present, except in the case of schools belonging to the Local Authority, it is excessive to suggest that 25 per cent. of Secondary School places should be free.[1] We shall show below that the amount of the fee in a Higher Secondary School is in no way representative of the cost of the education given, but the finances of a Grammar School are strained to breaking point when the income from fees is considerably reduced without an adequate grant in compensation. We would suggest that all scholarships beyond the old proportion, which had a real relation with the school's endowments, should be provided by the Local Authority, since they are given to benefit the poor children of the neighbourhood. An additional reason against too great a number of Elementary Scholars is that

[1] We would remind the reader that in French Secondary Schools 11 per cent., in German 10 per cent., of the boys are scholars.

they could not be assimilated by the rest of the school: they would create the very class-barrier they are meant to break down. Once inside the school, provision must be made for the scholars to be kept there as long as they profit by the teaching; often to-day a junior scholarship lapses before a senior one can be gained, and the boy's chance in life is missed. A special school fund should be placed in the headmaster's hands to meet such cases, and the town should generously contribute. To the Local Authorities, too, it falls to increase the number of exhibitions tenable by Day School boys who have won scholarships at Oxford and Cambridge.

(2) **In Public Boarding Schools.**—In public schools, scholarships should be awarded to needy boys, who attain distinction in one common examination that should qualify all boys alike for entrance to all schools. This examination should be taken at the age of thirteen, and should demand a fair level of all-round attainment, with emphasis upon English subjects and French, Latin being confined to testing in the rudiments, and Greek rigidly excluded. If, as would be best, honorary scholarships are also given, the present system of separating Collegers and Oppidans, as at Eton and Winchester, may be maintained: whereas if a scholarship comes to connote poverty only, then, of course, scholars must nowhere any longer wear a distinctive dress or live apart from their fellows. All scholarships should be renewable at the age of sixteen, and none renewed unless their holders had made satisfactory progress. There should also be a practice of rewarding steady work with a slight increase, so that a boy can feel that his own efforts are of help to his parents.

(3) **In Universities.**—It is calculated that £100,000 is spent every year by Oxford and Cambridge upon scholarships. Here, too, there is an imperative need for readjustment, so that the poor student may, with his school exhibition (which should be given upon a poverty test), have his income made up to £150 (or, if the ridiculous cost of living is reduced, to a correspondingly lesser sum), while the able man who is wealthy contents himself with the title. By this means much money would be set free for university and college purposes, should not the proper step be taken of applying all the surplus to new scholarships for needy boys. If indigent merit were rewarded with honour and money, and affluent merit with honour only, the number of able men in residence would be greatly increased, since many boys of good parts are to-day unable to "go up" through the brilliant sons of the rich accepting the money of which the former are in want.

The Financing of Secondary Education: Prof. Sadler's Estimates.—It remains for us to consider the difficult subject of the financing of English Secondary Education. The *locus classicus* on the question in the scanty existing literature is Prof. Sadler's *Report on Secondary and Higher Education in the County of Essex.* He has there compiled the following list of the cost per head in nine typical day schools for boys, according to the returns of six years ago:

PRESENT COST OF BOYS' SECONDARY SCHOOLS, WITH VERY INADEQUATE SALARIES

Year.	School.	Average no. of Boys.	Net expenditure for year.	Average cost per head.
			£ s. d.	£ s. d.
1903.	Bradford Grammar School .	503	8,841 12 7	17 11 7
1903.	Manchester Grammar School	746	13,593 14 1	18 4 5
1902-3.	Plymouth College . .	195	3,567 14 11	18 6 0
1903.	A Day School in Yorkshire .	250	5,054 0 0	20 4 4
1903.	Norwich Grammar School .	116	2,376 5 7	20 9 8
1902.	A Day School near London .	254	5,547 19 11	21 16 10
1903.	Nottingham High School .	329	7,580 3 10	23 0 9
1902-3.	Bristol Grammar School .	179	4,447 14 1	24 16 11
1902.	St. Paul's School . . .	600 (approx.)	25,139 13 2	41 17 11
		3,172	£76,148 18 2	£24 0 0

Prof. Sadler estimates the initial cost at £50 per school place, excluding the cost of the site, and rightly insists that from two-thirds to three-quarters of the annual outlay should go towards salaries, since the first necessity is sufficient and efficient masters. He puts the cost per head in boys' schools at from £8 to £9 in Higher Elementary Schools where the numbers exceed 100, at £15 in Middle Secondary Schools of 100 to 150 boys, and at £23 to £25 in Higher Secondary Schools or in the upper forms of Middle Schools. Since the Lower and Middle types of school chiefly benefit the locality by training boys for industrial and commercial life, whereas the Higher Secondary School benefits the nation by education for the professions and national services, he would, after setting aside the proper number of free places for poor boys of ability, distribute the expense in different proportions between the parent, the State, and the locality, according to the type of school. In Lower and Middle Schools the parent's fee should cover half the total expense, the remainder being equally divided between State and locality, while in Higher Secondary Schools the parents should pay three-fifths, the State three-tenths, and the locality only one-tenth

of the money spent. This principle he illustrates by the following table:

Type of School.	Cost per pupil.	Income from Fees.	Income from Locality.	Income from State (apart from teachers' training and pension).
	£	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Lower Secondary	8	4 0 0	2 0 0	2 0 0
Lower Secondary	10	5 0 0	2 10 0	2 10 0
Middle Secondary	15	7 10 0	3 15 0	3 15 0
Higher Secondary	20	12 0 0	2 0 0	6 0 0
Higher Secondary	25	15 0 0	2 10 0	7 10 0

Or, again to quote the same authority, the proper partition of burden is that:

(1) The Local Authority + the Endowments, where any, must provide: (*a*) Site and buildings; (*b*) upkeep of premises and equipment; (*c*) scholarships and maintenance allowances; (*d*) the above annual contribution to efficient maintenance; (*e*) such additional annual expenditure as should raise new or small schools to efficiency without increasing the fee above the normal level.

(2) The State must provide: (*a*) An annual contribution on the above scale; (*b*) part at least of the professional training of those teachers who would bind themselves to serve for a certain period; (*c*) a moiety of the total cost of teachers' sick and retiring allowances, the teachers finding the rest.

(3) The parent (save for scholarship-holders) must provide fees.

The Increasing Share of the State in the support of Higher Schools: Conclusion.—We have ventured to give Prof. Sadler's judgment at this length because no one can dispute that by careful survey of educational conditions in different parts of the country, and by a comparative and scientific study of the problem involved, he has acquired an unrivalled claim upon our deferential attention when he gives a verdict of this kind. He speaks in view of what is practicable and just at the present time, and we are neither desirous nor able to dissent from his opinion. We content ourselves with remarking that, up to now, the State has been more generous to Lower Secondary Schools and less generous to Higher than he advocates, since it gives both alike a £5 grant. With reference to salaries, Prof. Sadler's suggested scale of £150 rising to £300, and for larger schools £350, is as yet realised in only a few schools, and under the rare Local Authorities of a progressive spirit, like the London

County Council. The State has hitherto confined itself to suggesting that its increased grant should go to improve salaries, instead of making the continuance of the grant conditional upon the employment of competent and adequately remunerated masters. It has been urged by many that the expense would be most fairly shared by the State providing salaries, and the Local Authorities and endowments being made responsible for buildings and maintenance of material equipment. This opens up the whole question of masters becoming Civil Servants, a point we shall deal with in a later chapter. For the moment we will only say that more money must come, and come quickly, from either local or central sources to pay good men good wages, or all our efforts at reform will prove sterile. It is here that we see the necessity of State control and its corollary, State support. While Local Authorities should be encouraged to improve the condition of all needy schools in their area, whether Municipal or Endowed, by abolishing the absurdity of a maximum rate and by making the central grant greater, the greater the local contribution, the State alone can, rapidly and effectively, secure that every school has the equipment, the staff, and the income that it needs. It is a sound principle that Secondary Education should not be a charity, that schools should be good rather than cheap, and that parents should contribute, according to their ability, to the education of their sons. It is also a sound principle that every town should be expected to help local endowments in the provision of Secondary Instruction. But there is a limit to the resources of both the parent and the town, and until both alike have been converted to regard Secondary Schools as an indispensable institution, through such schools demonstrating their efficiency, there is a limit to their sympathy. It is the duty and opportunity of the State to create that sympathy and interest, and to help out those resources, by itself extending its grants and its guidance until the efficiency of every existing school is secured. Prof. Sadler's figures show that £24 was, a few years ago, the average cost per boy, with an exploited staff. It is true that the bigger the school, the lower the cost per head, but St. Paul's has an endowment bringing in £14,000 yearly and 600 boys, nearly 500 of whom pay a fee of £24, without offering a larger average salary than £250 rising to £400. It seems certain, then, that a day school on English lines will cost nearer £30 than £20 per boy when its salaries have been put on a sound footing. And we must level our Municipal Schools up to this higher standard instead of keeping the cost down to £10, if we

mean to make them equal to the German *Realschulen.* Inevitably, therefore, the lion's share of the expense will fall on the shoulders of the State, and with increased grant will rightly go increased control. America, with only twice our population, spends over £5,000,000[1] a year of State and Municipal money on her High Schools. In England at present the Local Authorities spend £600,000 and the State £767,000 (including the instruction of pupil-teachers) upon Secondary Schools. It is calculated that the annual outlay of an additional £1,000,000, the price of a smaller battleship, would make all these schools vigorous and great. When we have decided that the return for our money in the two articles is commensurable, and that battleships cannot defend a nation more surely than the spread of trained intelligence, we shall, as a State, be wise if we remember that education is most effectively helped by the delegation of power to individual schools and masters, when once we have made certain that both alike are competent. In this chapter we have tried to show that if it is the State's immediate duty to check abuses and remedy defects, it will be her real task to guide and inspire a living system of schools, each of which shall retain its own personality and develop its own talent, but without misdirection of energy or uncritical acceptance of tradition.

[1] The exact figures for 1906–7 are: (1) Public High Schools—(*a*) State and Municipal aid to 1,913 schools, = $8,646,577; (*b*) expenditure on sites, buildings, and improvements, = $16,495,971. (2) Private High Schools and Academies—(*a*) State and Municipal aid to 147 schools, = $140,283; (*b*) expenditure on sites, buildings, and improvements, = $3,008,032; (*c*) income from all sources, = $8,096,770, in 741 schools.

CHAPTER II

THE IMMEDIATE TASK BEFORE THE BOARD OF EDUCATION

The Present Position of the Board.—It is not too much to say that the hopes of the friends of English schools to-day are fixed upon the Board of Education with more assurance than ever before, because it is clear that the Board is waking to its responsibilities and casting about for the best methods with which it may deal with its infinite task. It is true that the voice of the grumbler is still heard in wearisome iterations in the Common Rooms, but when was it not? The passion of a Government department for forms and statistics is held up to obloquy: its demands for the standardisation of the curriculum are condemned root and branch as mere Procrustean uniformity: its exaction of free places is considered an outrage. It is opposed openly and secretly as the worker of all iniquity by the very men who bewail those unfair and impossible conditions of their profession which the Board of Education alone can reform. The reasons for this blind obtuseness lie in history, in the social distinctions of the schools of England, in the fact that the masters have never learned to look over the fences of their own compounds. Yet in view of the facts which we shall endeavour to make clear in later chapters of this section, it seems clear that the headmaster who refuses to work with the Board for better things is ungenerous, and the assistant-master stupid: and it is the plain duty of every man, whatever his position in the profession, to fall into line, and by constructive criticism and willing co-operation to make the schools and the teaching profession the pride, and not the scandal, of their country.

We have thought it necessary to make this preliminary protest because the value of criticism depends upon the spirit in which it is made. In those remarks which we shall have to offer on the past and present work of the Board, we wish it to be understood always that we admire much of the

work that has been done, realise the vast improvement made already in the last ten years in all the schools under the Board, and appreciate to the full the magnitude of the task proposed. For the Board of Education has not only to bring order out of blind chaos and incompetence, but to do this while working from below upwards, in the face of prejudice, hostility, and contempt on the part of the so-called higher elements of the schoolmasters' profession.

Other Means of Reform.—In the debate which took place at the Headmasters' Conference of 1908 on Dr. Gray's motion to "welcome a closer touch between the Board of Education and the authorities of the non-local schools, through inspection and other direct means of communication," the old hobby-horses were ridden, and the old dust was kicked up in the eyes of the public. We shall revert to the subject of this interesting debate again: here it will be enough to say that those who speak, doubtless with much sincerity, about the value of variety of type, the independence of schools, the position of the headmaster, and other good qualities of the English system which need never be threatened, seem never to realise how complete a failure the national system has hitherto been. The failure of the system of isolated and independent schools is proved up to the hilt by the universal discontent of assistant masters, by their steady decrease in numbers and deterioration in quality, and by the incapacity of the whole profession for reform. The Headmasters' Conference, founded with strong hopes by Thring, has proved itself capable of academic debate, but of nothing more. It at times passes resolutions which look well, and read well, but apparently mean nothing: it has no compelling power. It would be interesting to know how many schools as a result of the resolution of 1906 approving the reformed pronunciation of Latin actually made any change. This is but a single instance, but it is typical: and the recurrence of these things lays the whole Conference open to the charge of insincerity, and prevents it from being taken seriously by itself or by any one else. More than one of its ablest men has abandoned its meetings in despair. The Headmasters' Association is more useful and more business-like, but, just because of these qualities, does not profess to guide where it has no coercive power. The Assistant-Masters' Association even now represents merely a fragment of the whole profession, and in any case has not, and cannot have under present conditions, a shadow of influence upon the curriculum or organisation of any Secondary School. Such, apart from the Board of Education, are the only possible sources of

reform: they are of necessity utterly futile, disregarded by their own members and every one else under our noble system of spontaneity and freedom, and the imperative need for reform, which this book is designed to illustrate and to assist, demands a power with the necessary sanctions.

Such a power, and the only such power, is to be found in the Board of Education. The need is vital: the opportunity is here. If its powers are insufficient, let it acquire more, and use them with equal wisdom and determination. There is not the slightest reason why the Board should produce a dead uniformity of type, or interfere with the variety and vigour of our system. The task before it is to destroy the isolation, not the independence, of schools. These are not the same things, however much they may be confused in debate and discussion, and however much they may seem so to the timid conservative. We do not know of any school, which possessed a character of its own at all, that has lost it by working under the Regulations: we do not know of any instance in which the Inspectors of the Board have even attempted of late years to destroy a strongly marked local type.

Necessity for Frankness of Policy.—The whole trend of their recent policy has been liberal and sympathetic; and they should have the credit for it. But there are two criticisms which must be made on the policy of the Board, two respects in which the spirit of this policy must be changed, if great reforms are to come. In the first place, the policy must be more frank and open. There is no reason why sensitive Headmasters and sensitive Governors should be given the impression that they are being stalked by a beast of prey, no reason why the approaches should be indirect, and the consequences obscure. It is right that all the schools of England should become part of a national system, and the claim will not be seriously disputed if those in charge of the schools are once assured that the Board purposes, as we believe that it does, thorough reform combined with freedom. At present the schoolmasters are left in the dark, and the natural result is that they will not move.

Avoidance of Party Politics.—In the second place, it is supremely important that the policy of the Board should be free from all taint of party politics. It is the great merit of our political system that we can conduct our Departments of War, the Navy, and Foreign Affairs with continuity, on a plane above the wranglings of party. It will be disastrous if secondary education follows primary into the sectarian slough, as it certainly shows some tendency to do. In the last

Regulations of the Board we admire the liberality, but deplore the Liberalism, which was responsible for an excessively high assessment of the number of free places to be required, for the gratuitous introduction of the denominational question, and for unnecessary pressure on non-elected Governing Bodies. None of these things removed any pressing grievance in education, and all of them caused heartburning and obstruction. It is to be hoped that the Board will be warned by the results, and that the spirit of compromise which so nearly produced a settlement of the religious difficulty in Primary Schools will prevent the emergence a second time of political bias and partisanship in the Regulations for Secondary Schools.

The Board and the Assistant-Master.—The great failure of the Board of Education hitherto has been that it has failed to deal with the problem of the Assistant-master's position, that it does not seem to realise the effect of this weakness upon every branch of education, and that it has taken no wise measures, and no definite steps at all, to produce reform. Yet it seems to us that no statesman can survey the position without seeing that, here before anything else, he must set his hand to the work. In view of the full chapter which will be devoted to the statement of the condition of Assistant-masters, it is unnecessary to anticipate the details here. It is sufficient to say that twenty years ago the Assistant-masters in Secondary Schools were being expected to work hard for a totally inadequate wage, were untrained and unregistered, unable to marry, with no prospect of a pension, and no prospect of promotion in the great majority of cases within the profession. In the main, though there has been here and there a little improvement, and salaries are a little better, this statement holds good to-day. In the face of this position the Board has been content with a certain amount of official verbiage and platitude : it has said that the staff of a school should be well paid : it has taken no steps, as it could have done and should have done, to see that this was carried out. In the absence of statesmen of insight, this supineness can be explained, though it cannot be excused. In former days there were many Assistant-masters in Orders, men with two strings to their bow, who frequently retired to large or small livings. The Headmasters were men who had themselves escaped from the morass, and who were only too ready to acquiesce in a system which gave them personally ease, security, and comparative wealth at the expense of their less fortunate colleagues. The Assistant-masters, without means of communication with one another, immured in every type of school, belonging to every grade of middle-class

society, and permeated through and through with every form of class prejudice, remained, and for the most part remain to-day, politically incapable, discontented but uncombined.

Past Mistakes in Expenditure.—In consequence of this the money which was at the disposal of the Board, and which should have gone first and foremost to the augmentation of salaries and the provision of pensions, was devoted first of all to the provision of science teaching, for a very excessive number of hours, at a time in a boy's life when he was quite incapable of profiting by it. This was contrary to the wish of the best scientists, contrary to the practice of those Continental nations whom we were supposed to be imitating, and contrary to the advice of men of educational experience. Hand in hand with this policy, which caused schools to spend thousands of pounds in unnecessary laboratories, went the belief that the first need was bricks and mortar everywhere, and not competent and contented men. But education is not a work of bricks and mortar, but of flesh and blood. Some of the best teaching in the world has been given on hillsides and in hedge-bottoms, because it was given by the right men in the right way; and the finest and most spacious buildings may be, and too often are, merely an empty husk. It was not, and it is not, the first need of the endowed and other secondary schools to have new laboratories, new carpenters' shops, new class-rooms, new cloak-rooms, new assembly-halls, excellent as these may be, each in their own way, and however much they may advertise a school and its strenuous headmaster. The first need—more acutely felt than ever—is for able and trained men, filled with professional and pastoral spirit, in positions which will attract some of the ablest of the youth of the country to enter the ranks, even without the hope of an ultimate headmastership.

Improvements in Position of Assistant-Masters.—Here, then, we come face to face with the problem of problems. How is the Board of Education proposing to provide a career for the average man in the profession? And, equally with this, how is it proposing to reform the present members, or, if this prove a superhuman task, to provide that their successors shall be more trained, more willing, and more competent?

(1) **Salary.**—The first step is surely easy. It is simply to lay down, and, what is more important, to see that it is carried out, the principle that no school shall be on the grant list of the Board that does not pay an adequate stipend to each member of its staff. If the income and endowments prove insufficient, on careful examination

of the accounts and of the administration, as may very well prove the case, it would be a wise and perfectly justifiable use of public money to increase the grant to such a sum as will enable the school to pay its men properly. The steps that follow will take longer, but seem no less clear.

(2) **Creation of Register.**—It is essential that the Board should at the earliest possible moment create a Register. Of the qualifications necessary for a place thereon we need not speak here, since they will be sufficiently discussed in a later chapter. Whatever form may be finally decided on, it will be a register of the nation's qualified Secondary teachers, of whom every one should be able to look forward to a pension. But it should be more than this. It should be the instrument by which unity and combination can be attained without loss of freedom. There should be a Bureau, to keep, in conjunction with the Register, a record of every teacher's service, which should contain the remarks of Inspectors who have seen his work, and annual reports by his headmaster on the quality of his service. On the strength of this any man would be able to transfer from school to school without loss of seniority, without loss of pension, and without having to apply to agencies which, however competent, are an unnecessary financial drain on Assistant-masters. The Register would bring to an end at once the unreal and grotesque system of testimonials, which are a burden to everybody and satisfy none, and which cause as many grievances as anything else in this profession of complaints and chaos. A headmaster would advertise in some medium approved by the Board, and would be able to test the letters of application by reference to the records of the Bureau, which would be otherwise confidential. The system could be easily worked, and *mutatis mutandis* is worked to-day in the Admiralty and the War Office, in the services of the Army and Navy. It would create an informal Civil Service, but a Civil Service without rigidity, with spontaneity, freedom of movement, and a sense of professional dignity. The argument is surely clear. Satisfactory payment can only come through the Board of Education, because that is the only source from which additional funds can flow into the coffers of Secondary Schools. Pensions can only come through the Board of Education, because that is the only body which can formulate a scheme wide enough to allow of transference, elasticity, and security. Secondary schoolmasters must not be shut up in one town, or one district, because they are tied by the leg by a pension-scheme, and no local authority and no governing body can produce a scheme which

will not have this effect. A Register can only come through the Board of Education because that is the only body with authority to keep it and enforce it. Yet these changes are admitted necessities, if England is to be placed on a level with France and Germany in education. They must be carried out, and only the Board can do the work.

(3) **Training.**—It may be well to pause for a moment, and consider what reforms and changes would follow automatically from so thorough a revolution as that sketched above. The men entering the profession would possess not only academic qualifications, but would have been trained to teach. It is both customary and easy to sneer at training, for two reasons in the main: because we are all ready to think lightly of what we do not ourselves possess, and because training hitherto in this country has been rather badly done. Headmasters who receive young masters warranted first-class in discipline, class-management, and teaching power, and who discover that they are unable to control, but rather seem to corrupt, a class of the quietest boys in their schools, are likely to say in their wrath that all training is a sham and a waste of time. But that cannot be true of training, but only of the training which these particular men have received. In every other branch of life and activity training gives superiority, and teaching can be no exception. If facilities are given at the Universities, and the teaching profession becomes something worth making sacrifices for, the process of time will develop the supply of thorough training schools, and will fill them with eager learners, whose value no headmaster of the most Tory school will dispute. But without a Register, an assured position, and the prospect of adequate payment, no amount of regulations and ordinances will develop into more than words.

(4) **Creation of a Profession.**—In addition, these changes would produce not only the trained teacher, but the enthusiastic teacher, who realises that his life's work is a profession demanding constant study and development. He would stand to be judged on his work day by day: he would no longer kill time in the class-room. Golf and bridge might become with him recreations, and he might at times be seen to study some work bearing on his profession. In other words, the amateur, of whom England has had more than enough, would cease to be, because he could not survive in a professional atmosphere. The private schools "defamed by every charlatan, and soiled by all ignoble use" would be saved from their own weaknesses, and the genuine teachers who thus serve the State would be set free from the competition

of adventurers and humbugs. Clearly, under a Register no unqualified practitioners would be allowed, and no uninspected schools would be tolerated. We are ready enough to laugh at Dotheboys Hall as an exaggerated relic of a barbarous age. But Squeers, though he carried defective feeding to excess, was not unlike Pestalozzi in some of his methods, and we have only substituted for those academies halls where the parents, and not the boys, are done. We could look forward with these changes to a reform of the scholarship system of Public Schools and County and Local Authorities, and should be able to form a proper opinion, and enforce it, of what a Preparatory education really means. We could secure a career for those unfortunate young men who are employed in their teens to act as elder brothers and nurses to little boys, and who are discharged when their external aspect becomes avuncular. We might abolish those schools where boys are fed and not taught, equally with those in which they are taught and not fed, in favour of the comparatively small remainder in which both requirements of the human being are satisfied. All this would follow from adequate payment, a professional Register of sufficiently high standard, and inspection. And these things are in the power of the Board.

(5) **New Avenues to Promotion.**—Schoolmastering, like the Bar, is a profession in which the prizes are few, and the average man cannot hope greatly to succeed. In the Army, the Navy, and the Civil Service the average man can expect to rise automatically to a position of some distinction and some responsibility. But in teaching this attainment of eminence is, and must be, the exception. Nevertheless, since ambition inspires schoolmasters as well as other men, and hope makes ambition possible, it should be the business of the Board of Education to provide, not only an adequate and increasing salary for all masters alike, but also many more posts than are now in existence which would satisfy men of energy, and be worth a struggle to secure.

Departmental Masterships.—Such a reform is easy, and such posts can be found in at least four directions. If the policy, which we think wisest, be adopted—the policy of creating fairly large schools wherever possible, and bringing the boys to them—it would be prudent and possible, in the first place, to create in each senior masterships for classics, mathematics, science, modern languages, and English subjects, that would be posts to which senior men, who have neither the inclination nor the capacity for the varied work of a headmaster, could aspire and devote themselves. They would carry with them remuneration somewhat in excess of the

maximum to which the rank and file of the profession could attain.

Masterships of Method.—There ought to be, secondly, in the largest and most approved schools one or two masterships of method, which would be held by senior men of proved professional attainments and experience. The *Seminarlehrer* is already known in Germany, and it is already evident that the Board means to call into existence similar masters in England. There are men in the profession to whom this work will prove a labour of love, and whose best and strongest qualities will be brought into play.

Administrative Posts.—Thirdly, since the work of the Board is already great, and is obviously certain to be greater with every year that passes for some time, there should be opened up to young masters of about five years' experience a number of posts connected with the administration of education, which are now filled by clerks, doubtless competent, but who know nothing of education and refuse to learn. These workers of a code, who know nothing more than their code, are bad servants for an Education Department whose first duty it is to be in living touch with the teachers; and it is to them that, rightly or wrongly, schoolmasters attribute most of the evils of red tape and officialism of which they complain in their dealings with the Board. There would not be a great number of such posts, and there would not under reformed conditions be a great number of applicants. But there are cases of perfectly competent men who find that they have no sympathy with boys, or no power to control them thoroughly, or to bring out the best that is in them, who are nevertheless profoundly interested in education. Such men to-day only drift into despair and inutility: an administrative post would prove their salvation.

The Inspectorate.—There remains the fourth direction in which openings can be found for schoolmasters, and it raises a question on which feeling in the profession runs highest of all. The recruiting of the Inspectorate is at the present moment unsatisfactory to all schoolmasters. The capacity of the Inspectorate is doubted by many. We are very far from saying that the language commonly used by schoolmasters in speaking of this subject is always justified, and inspectors are far too often condemned by men who have never seen them at work. The present position is that they are most loudly condemned by the smaller schools, which may in some cases be suspected of having been brought into order and proficiency by their unwillingly accepted aid, and by the larger

schools which have never seen them, and, because they are new, do not want them. Their only friends are to be found among schoolmasters in fairly large and competent schools which have been inspected and have derived benefit. The subject has just been debated by the Headmasters' Conference, in the debate already referred to, in December, 1908.

Schoolmaster's Estimate of the Present Inspectorate.—On that occasion Dr. Gray, the champion of inspection, admitted that the Board "was proposing to give advice to institutions which were ruled by men who, at least, were the equals of the Board's inspectors in intellectual qualifications," and the inference from such language on the part of their defender is that he thought them inferior. The High Master of St. Paul's, on the other side, naturally went further, and is reported by *The Times* to have said that he "seriously questioned the ability of the present inspectors of the Board of Education to inspect the schools represented at the Conference." The Headmaster of King's School, Worcester, had found inspection to interfere with administrative efficiency, though he did not explain why the production of a few statistics permanently impaired the work of the term. The Headmaster of Uppingham, speaking from experience also, roundly declared that the Board of Education had not the men to do the work. The Headmaster of Merchant Taylors' School, Crosby, said that the Board seemed to aim at uniformity for its own sake. The writers of the present work, who also speak from experience of the Board probably far greater than that possessed by any of the critics named above, consider the criticisms to be as exaggerated as they are unfair, and sympathise with the Headmasters of King's School, Canterbury, and Leeds Grammar School, who from experience bore strong evidence in favour of the Board. In the end inspection by the Board was rejected by four votes only in a house of forty-five, and it is solacing to think that the champions of the present order of isolation and sterility won probably their last victory over the reforming party led by the Headmasters of Bradfield and Clifton. However that may be, it has been thought well to quote extensively from this debate, in order to show how rooted is the distrust in the Inspectorate among Headmasters; and among Assistant-masters it is still more strongly marked.

Reform of Inspectorate.—This feeling is due to the vague belief that schoolmasters form a profession, and cannot conscientiously or willingly submit to inspection by any but senior members of their own profession. Such a course would be unthinkable in the case of clergymen,

or doctors, or lawyers: it cannot be logical or just for teachers. Should such reforms as have been sketched be brought to pass, this feeling would only be infinitely intensified. Now the fact is that many of the Board's Inspectors have had considerable teaching experience, while many others are specialists in academic knowledge of a particular subject. They see all sorts of schools: they have thought much and read much: they are, so far as our experience goes, tactful, and they render very great services to the schools which they visit. But as yet far too few are chosen from the ranks of those who have known by long experience the difficulties and the problems of class-teaching, and until they are, class-teachers will not believe in them. Worse than this is the fact that the ranks of the Junior Inspectorate are being filled by a process in which influence can apparently play a considerable part, and by men of poor intellectual qualifications and no scholastic experience at all. It is possible for a young man with a poor degree to be promoted from a Secondary School, where he has conspicuously failed to manage a class, or to secure any results, to the post of a Junior Inspector of Secondary Schools. Such a person may "train on," or he may not; but he cannot in any case become a person whose opinion the headmaster of a great school will value or willingly consult. The system destroys all confidence. At the very moment when the Board is rightly beginning to ask for training of teachers, it is itself committing the egregious error of filling its Inspectorate with untrained and second-class men. Schoolmasters will not be satisfied unless the Inspectors of the future are drawn from their own ranks, and from the best men in their ranks, after considerable service in schools. In the opinion of many, the period of such service should be not less than ten years, and should be in more than one type of school. The initial salary should be a little higher than it is now, though the ultimate salary need be no higher. The prospect would draw into the profession many first-rate men who would perfect themselves both in practice and theory, would still further increase the number of advances to promotion, and would produce a body of men in whom all schools would have confidence, and who would be welcome everywhere.

We have dwelt at length on the work before the Board in reforming the *personnel* of the staffs of Secondary Schools and the Inspectorate, because here the Board has either not yet acted at all, or else has acted with insufficient vigour, or has shown a tendency to follow false trails. Reform is, in the main, a question of money, but it is unthinkable that England will

fail to provide the means which the poorer countries of Germany and France have now for nearly a century provided.

Increasing Liberality of the Board.—But there is other work which claims the attention of the Board, of only less importance. Nothing but praise can be given to the pamphlets circulated from time to time to guide the teaching in special subjects. This work should be continued and developed, and the experience of all types of schools described and compared. Nor less to be praised is the spirit shown in the new Regulations, which no longer require of necessity a precise number of hours and minutes to be spent on different subjects in different schools. Doubtless this relaxation of central control will be carried still further, for it is certain that within wide limits fixed by the Board, the freer the headmaster and his staff can be left the better will it be for the school.

Attendance at Secondary Schools: Reform.—Within the schools themselves the hardest problem before the Board is to devise means by which boys entering on the school course can be prevented from leaving before they have finished it. The exact figures, so far as can be ascertained, have been given previously: they prove that in too many cases the so-called Secondary Education is a farce. It is not, at any rate as yet, possible for England to follow Germany's example, and offer the boys who successfully reach the end of their school course a remission of one year of their military service. But it is possible to do other things. We agree strongly with Mr. Tarver[1] that attendance at the full course of a Secondary School of definite type should be a necessary preliminary to the holding of any public appointment. Further, it would be a great gain if the Board could institute two examinations, one for boys of sixteen, and the other for boys of eighteen to nineteen, which should be a hall-mark that they had reached the standard of Secondary Education proper to their age.

Leaving-Examinations.—Into the details of such 'examinations it is unnecessary to enter. What is certain is that there must be something to show what school-training is, and should be,—something tangible which the business man can appreciate and exact. Business houses are the worst offenders in taking boys from school into offices years before they are fit to go, but this is chiefly due to the fact that business men were even worse treated in their own boyhood. They think that a boy does best who learns everything from the start:

[1] *Debateable Claims*, pp. 160-3.

they do not know that the trained boy of sixteen or seventeen picks up in a year what the unformed child of fourteen or fifteen learns with difficulty in three or four. The Government should set an example by demanding the right standard of all whom it employs itself, and the Board should make this standard easily accessible by the institution of the proper Certificate Examinations.

Municipal Schools: the Needed Emancipation.—It has been said before that the difficulty of the work of reorganisation has lain in the necessity of working from below upwards, and the result of this is to be seen in many of the Municipal Secondary Schools at the present moment. They are in reality Higher Elementary, and can hardly be otherwise, since they are filled with ex-elementary boys and staffed to a considerable extent by ex-elementary teachers. These are the schools which, by their dreary uniformity, their insufficient playgrounds, and their unenterprising policy, have filled observers with alarm, and led to the belief that this is the type of school which the Board wishes to perpetuate and increase. In them the Headmaster is reduced to the rank of an official. He is exposed to the inspection of the Board's inspectors and those of the Local Authority; he may be interfered with by Town Councillors and the permanent officials of the Education Committee; he lives his life among regulations, registers, and forms; he has a staff whose ideal is to do a definite bit of work between definite hours, and never to do more. Under such circumstances only the ablest men can be anything but clerks. This is a type which it is incumbent on the Board to emancipate at once. It cannot be too soon or too clearly impressed upon Education Committees and their officials that schools are not, like a merchant's office or the department of a great shop, mechanically managed, but are the expression of living personalities; that all that is great in English schools (and at their best they have been very great) has come from realising this truth, and that all that is weak in France and Germany has come from forgetting it. The schools should be taken from the centre of the town, and given the playgrounds without which no English school can fulfil itself: the Headmasters should be given clerks to satisfy the demands of the Education Committee, and should be set free to do their proper work. They should be well paid, and since in too many cases they are men who have never known what a true Secondary School should be, some of the best men of the best type of such schools should be introduced, to establish the true tradition and the true standards. As it is, the work is hard, the conditions uninviting, the pay poor, and

the results, in spite of much excellent and willing work, by no means what they might be.

Decentralisation.—Finally, the Board of Education already shows signs of having grown to unwieldy proportions, and it will be very doubtful policy to continue to carry everything to the centre, as has hitherto been done. The different parts of England have a marked character of their own. The spirit of the West is not that of the North, and the Midlands are clearly distinguished from the Eastern Counties. An administration with the same methods and ideals issuing regulations to all alike is bound to have a difficult and often an impossible task. The time is very near when decentralisation will be necessary and wise. In Prussia thirteen *Provinzial-Schulkollegien*, or Provincial School Boards, have been established, which are in sympathy with their own districts, can develop their ideals, and can satisfy their needs. They perform functions which in England are all as yet in the hands of the Board of Education, leading to congestion and overwork. In France there are seventeen *Académies*, and these equally carry on work which with us to-day is still done at the centre. The establishment of similar authorities in England, embracing several counties—for the counties by themselves are too small—would be a very great reform. It would stimulate local endeavour and local patriotism; it would lead to the best professional rivalry; above all, it would lead to variety of type and different curricula for different parts of England. Last, but not least, it would leave the Board itself free for the supreme direction of affairs and the issues of high policy, which it finds it so difficult to discern under the vexation of multitudinous and petty detail.

Consultative Committees.—In one other point the administration, as organised to-day, calls for comment. The Consultative Committee is proving a disappointment because it does not seem to have a fair chance. It consists of twenty-one members, all of them representative, but insufficiently representative, of Secondary Schools. But it is not as independent as it should be; it is not consulted as frequently as it ought to be; in a word, it is not given sufficient weight. It should form a supreme council of experts, election to which should be the highest honour possible to the distinguished veterans of education It should possess a definite sphere of its own, and in that sphere it should be supreme.

We have criticised freely and at length, because here only in English education lies the hope of the future. The position is changing rapidly: the future seems full of promise. The

reforms that have already come in the schools, have come of recent years, not from the Public Schools, nor from the Endowed Schools, nor from the Local Authorities, but from the Board of Education. If we have dwelt overmuch on faults and mistakes of the past, it has been due to the feeling that great reforms may be very near, and we have been unwilling, so far as our voices may be heard, to let shortcomings pass without protest. But we write with confidence that under the Board of Education there will be realised in England a national organisation which shall preserve every element of liberty that made the strength of the old system, but which shall be free from its poverty, its incompetence, and its injustice.

CHAPTER III

THE POSITION OF THE HEADMASTER

IT is a tradition of English life that the Headmaster is an autocrat of autocrats, and the very mention of the title conjures up in the minds of most people a figure before which they trembled in their youth, and with which they have never felt quite comfortable even in mature life. The Headmaster, in most English schools, certainly holds a position of absolute power, for which no analogy can be found in any other profession whatever, a position, further, of authority and influence far surpassing all that is exercised by those of the same rank in other countries. In spite of the undoubted fact that absolute power is not good for any human being except Plato's perfect man, whom the philosopher would not recognise at any rate in the majority of modern Headmasters, on the whole a fine tradition has been established, which lies at the basis of the greater part of the successes won in English education. Doubtless mistakes have been made, and grave injustices done, which would have been avoided under a system of centralised control. But on the other hand, great schools have been built up, great training-grounds of character, scholarship, and public service developed, which a rigid centralisation like that of France would have rendered impossible. Now that clouds appear on the horizon, and this tradition of autocracy is challenged from more than one quarter, it seems necessary that the whole question should be debated, and a clear opinion formed as to the limitations, if any, which ought to fetter the Headmaster's discretion.

External Control: (1) The Board of Education.—There are three external authorities which can enter judgment on the Headmasters of Secondary Schools, other than private, at the present time: the Board of Education, Boards of Governors, and Local Education Authorities. There are some schools which are subject to the control of only one of these: there are others which are exposed to the criticism of all three.

It is certain that both the first and the last have made incursions on the domain of the Headmaster which the old Governing Bodies never made. In some cases these incursions have been serious, and the profession is generally alarmed. The very phrase, so common on schoolmasters' lips, "Going under the Board," disliked as it is by the Board's Inspectors, shows the conscious or sub-conscious estimate of the state of service involved. Schools managed by Local Authorities are generally considered not to have souls of their own. We have discussed the subject broadly already in a previous chapter, but at the risk of some repetition, it will repay trouble to examine the ground again in the same spirit, and in greater detail, since, next to the reform of the position of the Assistant-master, there is no quarter in which there are so many chances of going wrong in the process of reorganising the national system of education.

The Board and the Curriculum.—It will be conceded by all that the Board of Education is well within its rights in exacting that every public school (the term is used in its widest sense) shall be governed by a scheme, or under an Act of Parliament, of which any member of the public can have full cognisance, and in further exacting, with the utmost rigour, that all that is done shall come within the four corners of the scheme or Act. Beyond this, we think that it is certainly the business of the Board of Education to lay down in broad outline, but in broad outline only, the subjects of study and training which should compose the curricula of the different types of schools. This, and more than this, is considered the business of the central authority in both France and Germany, and until very recently the Board followed suit in England, by imposing on schools within its control a time-table in which a great variety of subjects had to find a place, and each received such a hard-and-fast proportion of time that there was none left for experiment or specialisation. But latterly the Board has declared that this process was educative, and it is now satisfied that schoolmasters have been safely conducted through the constraint of the Law to the freedom of the Gospel. Within certain limits, Headmasters are set free to organise their own time-table, with the characteristic English caution that they must not (at any rate as yet) make use of their liberty. When this liberty is made quite real, the Board will have found a wise and inspiring solution of the problem. The bonds which produce such excessive uniformity in Continental countries will not be felt, and room will be found for free experiment and the expression of individuality. In this respect it makes wholly for good that in approved cases the Board offers an increased grant to schools which

can strike out new and promising paths, and that this offer is not unreal is proved by the fact that one school (the Perse School at Cambridge) is already in receipt of such a subvention. In all education the work of the pioneer is both necessary and expensive, and it is a great encouragement to the profession to see this truth recognised in the very quarter which those not in touch with it usually accuse of aiming at nothing but dead uniformity.

When the central authority has approved a scheme, stated the broad outlines of a curriculum, and provided room and encouragement for experiment, the best thing, and indeed the only thing, it can do is to leave the Headmaster and his staff alone. Any other procedure involves work both for the central authority and the school, which leads to no result, and is therefore a source of vexation and worry to both. The Headmasters of Secondary Schools are generally men who can be trusted, and, if they are not, they should be replaced by men of greater responsibility. It should be quite unnecessary to continue the present practice of demanding in each year a restatement of the time-tables of each class and of each master, in every detail for every hour of the day; or, since there are signs that it is realised that this good custom has sufficiently corrupted the world, to continue to exact that every change in a time-table once approved should be reported to the Board, and receive the sanction of its Inspectors. It seems to us that this is not the business of the central authority, and that it *is* the business of the Headmaster. Another annoying and futile regulation is that which demands that the time-table of every senior boy, who specialises for any reason, and therefore varies from the regular class-work of the school, shall be separately submitted to the Board, and approved by them. In this case it may be presumed that the Headmaster, who is assumed throughout this chapter to be an honest man, knows what is best for the boy, advises him and organises his work to the best of his ability, and can certainly judge his needs more soundly than any official in Whitehall, or any Inspector in the locality, whose visits are necessarily infrequent. Both Inspector and Headmaster are now burdened with work which they do not wish to perform, and of which the only result is the consumption of a little more red tape, and a little more expenditure of public money. There may have been, and there doubtless was, a reason for these regulations. Inspectors, condemned to silence by the tradition of the public service, could, if they liked, tell a tale, which schoolmasters, perhaps, would rather keep untold. It may be true that Headmasters have been found who were incapable

of drafting a satisfactory time-table, who gave way to parents, and allowed boys to specialise who were totally unfit, who permitted to lurk in corners of their premises boys who were not receiving anything in the shape of a secondary education at all. But if this be true, as it is said to be, the solution does not lie in a system which ties down the competent Headmaster by making him submit matters within his province to outsiders, but in the elimination of the incompetent. With such, the Board of Education has usually been merciful, and their general attitude in other respects at the present time goes to show that the regulations of which we complain are transitional, and therefore temporary.

It is not argued that the Headmaster should therefore do exactly what he likes with the curriculum without any interference at any time, so long as he keeps within the broad outlines laid down. The system of triennial inspection, which is the rule of the Board, and which would be carried out if the Inspectorate were only of sufficient numbers, provides the check and calling to account which are necessary to keep all weak mortals, and even Headmasters, up to the mark. Every three years the time-table and the whole internal organisation of the school, in a word the Headmaster's work, should be thoroughly inspected and proved. Whatever criticisms are necessary can then be made, and changes can result without loss of dignity. In the meantime the schools will have been saved labour; the Inspectors will have been saved labour; and there will be no feeling in the hearts of Headmasters that their work is being submitted to the control of possibly disinterested, but certainly uninterested, civilians. There will be preserved all that is worth keeping of the old independence; there will be instituted enough external control and expert criticism to render impossible many of those mismanagements and failures which were not infrequent under the old order.

The Board and Finance.—The soundest policy which the Board can pursue is one that neither ignores on the one hand nor meddles on the other. This is as true on the financial side as it is in dealing with the curriculum. Over the broad financial policy of a school the Board should rightly exercise due control. It should not permit an ambitious Headmaster to erect new buildings at the expense of the present and future staff, nor to raise the fees without showing due cause. Experience has shown that Governing Bodies are here not wholly to be trusted, and in some cases have countenanced ruinous expenditure, under which schools have suffered for years. A central and im-

partial authority will be free both from local ambitions and influences, and the enthusiasm and dominance of a commanding personality. No Headmaster has a right, by raising his fees, to transfer the benefit of the endowments from one class of society to another, but this, too, has been done not infrequently in the past, and the change from the local grub to the non-local butterfly, though in every way profitable to those who have directed the metamorphosis, has not always been edifying. Upon such great issues, then, the central authority may rightly interfere, and may demand that, equally in finance and in building. a school shall satisfy its experts. It is when the Board goes beyond this, and interferes with the domestic administration in detail, that it is apt to err grievously. Stirred to indignation by the knowledge that some schools, charging nominally a low fee, convert it into a high one by the simple process of charging infinite extras, it has issued a ukase that there shall be no more extra fees at all. The result has been that many schools, which under their schemes were only able to provide for the new demands of modern education by charging extra fees, frequently by order of the Board, have been brought face to face with a possible loss of a few hundreds a year, which will render financial solvency impossible. We do not doubt that such cases will be dealt with in a liberal spirit, and in such cases as we personally know this spirit is being shown. Our point is that no good result has been brought about by the upset and anxiety caused all over the country by this regulation, since the offending schools are few, and should have been dealt with separately. A similar unwise and unwarrantable interference appears in the regulation demanding that there shall be no pressure on boys to join their games clubs, or school societies of any kind, but yet insisting that games shall none the less be organised, and societies flourish. This is setting Headmasters and their staffs to make bricks without straw, and must in many schools have the effect of making this difficult and invaluable work doubly difficult. It is pretty certain that no boy will appreciate or value any club, library, or magazine which he gets for nothing; and the far too common type of parent, who sends his boy to a day school to be in the school, and not of it, will be encouraged and confirmed in error. These things must be paid for by the boys, for on that condition only can they be made to flourish. The alternative is either not to have them at all, an unthinkable solution, or to finance them from school funds, already insufficient to meet the just demands made upon them by the staff. Surely here, if anywhere, the

Headmaster must be trusted to see that individual hard cases are provided for, and must be left to manage such small matters in the light of the knowledge of his locality and constituency, which nobody else can possess in the same measure.

It may be hard in theory to find a definition which shall distinguish, in financial matters, the borders of the central authority and the Headmaster and Governors, but it ought not to be difficult in practice. The annual balance-sheet is open to inspection, and in any case the whole financial position should be examined carefully every three years. This provides all the opportunities that are needed for criticism and control, which should be directed to individual cases. Nothing more fatal can be thought of than to legislate in the same terms for all the varied types of schools under the Board of Education, which increase in number and variety every year. It is comforting to reflect that the result of such regulations is to produce such an amount of work for the central office that those responsible are likely soon to have had enough of it. Inspectors are in general sane and liberal on this question; but even they, carried away perhaps in the first flush of power by the sense of responsibility, have been known to interfere to excess. It is related of one that he brought to task a Headmistress, and subjected her to three weeks' correspondence, because she was purchasing rice for her boarders at a price several times as great as the farthing a pound which appeared from the official hand-book to be the correct price to pay. At the end of three weeks the young Inspector, who had the misfortune to be a mere man, was convicted of having argued from a misprint. The story, on its less amusing side, goes to show that there is too much meddling with detail. It was certainly the Inspector's duty to see that the girls were well fed at a reasonable cost: it was not his business to check the weekly bills in detail.

(2) **Governing Bodies.**—It has been said of Governing Bodies that their whole duty is easily summed up: it is simply to find a good Headmaster, and thereafter for ever to leave him alone. Truth lurks under the exaggeration, but it is a great exaggeration for all that. It is certainly their most critical and difficult duty to choose a Headmaster with impartiality and with insight. Afterwards it is their business not to interfere unnecessarily, but certainly not to leave him alone. The good Governing Body, unhappily too rare, provides the best Board of Control that has yet been devised for schools, and is far more helpful than an elected authority. It should consist of men of local position, of educated and

liberal mind, who are above all able and willing to take an interest in the school. It will be their duty to watch the school closely, to visit it when it is at work, to demand and listen to regular reports from the Headmaster, to call for and read reports from examiners, above all to give the Headmaster a regular place at their tables, and with him thoroughly to discuss the administration and finance of the school, and all serious disciplinary measures which he has seen fit to take in relation to the staff and the boys. Such a Board of Governors will exercise a constant and living control upon the Headmaster, which will contain no vexatious or undignified element if on both sides sympathetic courtesy be shown. But Governing Bodies may easily make mistakes in more than one direction. They may put too hard and fast an interpretation on the words of a scheme, and cut off the Headmaster from any voice in the financial administration of his school. This is unwise, because it not only discourages the Headmaster, but it deprives them of the services of the one adviser who knows, or ought to know, more about the question than any other. They may exclude him from their meetings altogether, and so produce in his mind a feeling that he is being criticised as a servant and not as an administrator, in which event they cannot expect co-operation and hearty support. Being often busy men, they may find it difficult to visit the school, or to attend school functions. But this is often the most important part of their work, for it is certainly their only means of obtaining first-hand knowledge of what is going on. It is a most cogent reason for selecting leisured men for the position, because no Governors can be considered satisfactory who do not visit, and too frequently it is quite impossible for them to find the time. Nothing stimulates schoolmasters more than interest shown in their work; but, as it is, Assistant-masters, in particular, all over England complain almost invariably that Governors know nothing of them, and care less. In the local school a Governing Body that takes advantage of its opportunities can exercise a control that is real and beneficial; but far more than this, it can by judicious visiting become a great factor in a school's success.

(3) **Local Authorities.**—When we pass to the consideration of the Local Authorities, we reach the element in English education which threatens, with the best intentions in the world, to work great damage. They have only too naturally adopted the Primary tradition, of which they had knowledge, and not the Secondary, of which they knew nothing. In the chapter on the task of the Board of Education we have already indicated the necessity, as we believe, for root and

branch reform in this direction. It is here our business to show simply and briefly the kind of control exercised by Local Authorities over their Headmasters, and to consider its justification. It seems to us that a fatal mistake is made at the very outset when the Headmaster is not allowed to choose and appoint his own staff. The necessity, under which he labours from the beginning, of working with men possibly unsympathetic reduces the staff all round to the position of men doing each his own piece of isolated work. The personal relation, which makes the true Secondary School, is lost: co-operation becomes formal, and the staff works not to support the Headmaster, or to realise his conception of the good of the school, but to please an Inspector or to catch the eye of a Director of Education or a Chairman of Committee. It may be well for great cities to appoint permanent officials to direct and co-ordinate educational work, but it is not necessary, indeed it is disastrous, to allow to all these officials authority over the Secondary Schools. A Headmaster, who is already working under the Regulations of the Board of Education, and who has also to prepare and submit returns at the will of the Director of Education, the Secretary of the Education Committee, and the City Treasurer, lives the life of a clerk, not of a leader, and cannot even begin to do the work he should do in his school. When the Local Authority, ambitious of doing everything in the best possible way, adds the further terror of a second-rate Inspectorate of its own, and the class-rooms of the school are opened to the visits and the judgment of two types of Inspector, and of members of the Education Committee and their officials, life must become intolerable.

Reform in Municipal Schools.—As we saw elsewhere, most of the defects of Municipal Schools are due to pushing the methods and organisation of Primary education upon Secondary, and indeed many of these schools have grown from the Higher Elementary, or still are of that type, though under another name. But it is certain that they will increase, and therefore reform is necessary if they are to bear their proper fruit—reform which only the Board of Education is strong enough to carry through. What we think to be the most necessary changes will be obvious from what has already been said. In general these schools should be organised on the same principles as the older Secondary Schools. The Headmaster should be given the power of appointing and dismissing his staff on the same terms as obtain in Endowed and Public Schools. He should be subject to the visits of only one Inspectorate, preferably that of the Board of Education,

which might well take over the men now working for the Local Authorities. The reports of this Inspectorate could perfectly well be submitted in duplicate both to the Education Committees and to the Board. The Headmaster again should not be the person responsible in each school for the production of all statistics required by any department of the Town or County Authority, but in each case there should be a responsible clerk to do what is a clerk's work. Lastly, since Higher Education Committees are generally numerous bodies, with power to co-opt and add to their number, they might well break into sub-committees, to fill in relation to the different Secondary Schools, which could not be many, somewhat of the position now held by Governing Bodies in relation to other Secondary Schools. The Headmaster would then be set free to get into touch with his staff and his boys, to make the school a living and united whole, and to realise the true English ideal. And for this purpose, as has been said elsewhere, it would be well if men to whom this ideal is second nature could be planted here and there in the great cities of this country. But until these radical changes have been made in the organisation of the schools, and in the position allotted to their chiefs, it is idle to expect men of the type most wanted to volunteer.

The Headmaster and Inspection.—We claim, then, for the Headmaster, in relation to external control, not indeed the full measure of the old autocracy, but still a position of undisputed supremacy, responsibility, and prestige. In return for the continuance of this power he is to submit himself at definite but not frequent intervals to thorough examination and calling to account. The High Master of St. Paul's has recently said, and he has only repeated what others are saying, that inspection of the Headmaster impairs his efficiency. He argued that an unsatisfactory report would mean a complaint from the Board of Education to the Governors of any given school with regard to the work of the Headmaster, and consequently the relations of the Headmaster and his Governors would be disturbed, and the Headmaster would feel that he was responsible no longer to one body only, but in future to two. Assuming that he was rightly reported in *The Times*—and other papers do not differ—we can only say, with all respect, that we have seldom read so weak, we are tempted to say so frivolous, an argument. If the school is unsatisfactory, and the Headmaster is not doing his work as he should, there is every reason why his relations with his Governors should be disturbed, and the sooner the better. Is the Headmaster's incom-

petence to be sacrosanct? But if the school is satisfactory, then it is the merest nonsense to talk about being responsible to two authorities. The Headmaster has not to give an account of his stewardship to an Inspector, but merely to give him access to the school. Good Headmasters derive the greatest benefit, and are the first to confess it themselves, from these visits of experts; they have much to gain, and, if they are doing their duty, need not have anything to lose. Do any Headmasters seriously expect that the nation is much longer going to concede to them autocracy in all its forms, including what is still virtually the power of life and death over their assistants, combined with absolute security of tenure and freedom from account? So far is this from being just that we feel sure the great powers which are rightly claimed for Headmasters in England can only be granted on the terms that they shall be subjected to proper examination, and in default of their being found to have exercised their stewardship wisely, be fearlessly and unhesitatingly dismissed. This is hard doctrine; but it is right that, while Assistant-masters should have every chance, Headmasters should have few. This is not a paradox, but clearly follows from any close examination of the position. A Headmaster who for any reason proves incompetent invariably brings down his school, lowers its tone and its efficiency, and destroys the prospects of his staff. As a result, the parents do not obtain the education which they have a right to expect for their children, the boys themselves are handicapped by a deficient training, and the Assistant-masters do not obtain promotion, are lucky if they can escape to another school, and more lucky still if they do not suffer reduction of salaries. Their lot is the most cruel of all, for they may be doing, and usually are doing, their utmost to save and maintain the school. Yet the incapacity of the Headmaster gives the school a bad name, and their best efforts are useless. Every man, who has been connected with the profession for any length of time, will know of more than one case where the tenderness of Governing Bodies to their Headmaster has ruined a school for a generation, if not destroyed it, and deprived its masters of their chance in life. Let it therefore be clearly realised that, so long as the Headmaster remains virtually absolute, paid far in excess of his Assistants' stipends, and the receiver of nearly all the credit, he must only keep his position if he maintains the prestige and efficiency of his school.

Headmasters' Salaries.—The mention of the high position and great comparative remuneration enjoyed by Headmasters leads us naturally to consider the objection so often urged

by the Assistant-master, in his haste, that the disparity of stipend is unfair, that in other countries this disparity does not exist, and that a revision of the salary scales is most urgently needed. No one disputes the fact that the Assistant-master deserves much more than he gets, and there are few Headmasters who do not feel occasional qualms when they compare their own social prestige, comfortable incomes, and prospective pension with the very different lot of many of the men who serve them so wholeheartedly. No one argues that there are not cases where the disparity cannot be defended, and that instances such as exist, where a Headmaster can receive more thousands than his assistants receive hundreds, are incapable of justification by any pleading. But the argument from France and Germany is beside the mark. It is quite true that there the Head of a school does not receive very much more than his best-paid Assistant; but then, in France at least, he is not the sort of Head that we know and value in England, and we believe that it would be very much better for France if he were. In this country the Headmaster is often called upon to occupy an expensive house, to entertain in some measure, and to maintain a position in society: he is expected to be generous, when occasion arises, and to play his part as a leading man. None of these demands can be met without expenditure on his part, and, were the truth only known, very frequently the Headmaster, against his own will, is only the administrator of a large income in the interests of the school. He probably works harder than any member of his staff; but neither this nor the preceding consideration justifies his larger income completely. The justification is found in this, that under the English system he bears the responsibility, practically the sole responsibility, for the conduct of the school, and everywhere great responsibility and great managing ability must be paid for heavily. Since this is so, and since the unsuccessful Headmaster should certainly be got rid of, the high income is justified. If it is not paid, the right men will not be attracted: for supposing that an Assistant-master could only expect to add £100 a year to his salary by undertaking the burden of a Headmastership, he would be a rare person indeed who under present conditions thought that the game was worth the candle. Either the whole position of the Headmaster in English schools and in English society must undergo complete change, or the high rewards must remain. Indeed, so convincing does the case seem to us, that we are inclined to place the shoe on the other foot, and to say that so far is it from fact that Headmasters' salaries are too high, that the

truth is they are generally too low. They are too low in the smaller Endowed Schools, and they are too low in the Municipal Schools. Even under present conditions many Assistant-masters are better off than the struggling Headmasters of small schools in country districts, who have to face constant worry and anxiety on an insufficient endowment, with an underpaid staff, and a few boarders more or less exploited to make ends meet. Usually the ends do not meet, in spite of infinite hard work and infinite self-sacrifice on the part of the Headmaster's wife, and the melancholy spectacle is seen of able men drifting with a few unhappy boarders in their train from one little school to another, and wearing their hearts out at each. Of the ordinary Municipal School it is sufficient to say that few men of ambition and ability are likely to be attracted by the prospect of £300 a year, and work in a crowded quarter of a great town, with a staff which the Headmaster does not choose and a curriculum which he does not control. If, as has been previously argued, more avenues of promotion are opened up to Assistant-masters, and their stipends raised all round to the proper income of a professional man, little more will be heard of this short-sighted desire to take away from a poor profession the very few prizes which it does contain. Here, if anywhere, it is a case for levelling up and not levelling down.

Appointment and Dismissal of Staff.—Something remains to be said of the Headmaster's position in relation to the internal control of the school, and in this connection the thorny question of the appointment and dismissal of the staff at once leaps to the mind. This can be more suitably and thoroughly discussed in the chapter which deals with the Assistant-master—it is sufficient to say here that it seems essential to us that the appointment of a staff should rest in no other hands than the Headmaster's, but that in all cases of the dismissal of a full member of the staff appeal should lie, in the first place, to the Board of Governors, by them to be personally heard, and in the second place to the central authority of the Board of Education. It may be objected that a double-barrelled appeal of this sort is unworkable; but it might easily be enacted that the second appeal to the higher tribunal should either only lie if more than a third of the Governing Body were in favour of the dismissed master, or if a majority of his colleagues supported his case against their chief. A regulation such as this would prevent appeals from being carried forward idly or maliciously. But it should be further understood that a failure on the part of a Headmaster to make his case good would normally entail his

resignation, for it would be inconceivable that he would be able to conduct the school with the necessary authority and support when he would count among his staff the very man whom he had endeavoured to dismiss, and a majority which had condemned his action. The power which is conceded to the Headmaster is so great that the greatest precautions must be taken against its abuse; and in any case, whether the result of the proceedings means the fall of the Assistant or his chief, there is one motto to be remembered of universal truth, *Salus scholæ suprema lex.*

Masters' Meetings.—But more nearly concerned with our immediate subject is the question of the place in school government which should be held by the Masters' Meeting. There are some who argue that the Masters' Meeting should be the committee of government in all affairs of the school, and that all questions should be decided by a majority vote. Now, apart from the fact that many staffs contain masters who are indifferent, and others who are newcomers, ignorant as yet alike of the traditions of the school and the feelings of the locality, it is plain from what we have said above of the position and responsibility of the Headmaster that he cannot delegate his functions in this manner. The exigencies of school-life demand instant decision, and many Assistants know to their cost how great a hindrance it is to serve under a chief who cannot make up his mind quickly. But corporations have no souls, and Masters' Meetings, to-day at least, seldom have any minds. A large committee is the slowest and least efficient of all instruments of government. Clive on a famous occasion called a council of war: had he followed its advice, Plassy would not have been won, at any rate, on that occasion. And it is safe to say that the Headmaster who thus attempted to rule his school would not win many Plassys in the course of his career. But with this reservation, the Masters' Meeting is capable of becoming a most valuable instrument, and is insufficiently used in most English schools. It should meet regularly, though not too often, during the term, and with greater frequency in a Boarding than a Day School. It should provide a sphere for open discussion, not only on matters of routine, such as occur at the beginning and end of all terms, but on matters of curriculum and general interest, and it should not discuss Headmaster's business only. It should be open to any master to bring forward anything which he thinks may be for the good of the school, and any proposals made should be fairly and openly discussed. Wherever the Headmaster is liberal, and the school is not hide-bound by tradition, very valuable

reforms in routine, curriculum, and administration can in this way be suggested, and adopted. It is needless to add how great an advantage is gained if Assistant-masters are able to feel that they can influence the school in which they serve, and improve its efficiency.

Punishment.—Several other questions might well be discussed in connection with internal control, but since they will be treated at length in later portions of this book, they can be lightly dismissed for the present. In particular we need not burden the chapter by raising the question of corporal punishment, on which there is so much division of opinion.

Parents.—And we can defer to the chapter which deals with the Home and the School the discussion in detail of the rights of Parents against Headmasters, and of Headmasters against Parents. We need only say here that it is recognised in some schools already, and it will be forced upon many more, that a closer touch must be established between the Home and the School where this is possible. In Boarding Schools it is not a feasible policy, since they are based on the negation of home-training from the start. But in Day Schools, which are more fluid, more capable of reform, and set down in the very midst of the homes, it becomes increasingly clear that schoolmasters can no longer afford to disdain the parents, and can immensely strengthen their hands if they will only attempt to train the parents to co-operate, and be willing, as they have not been yet, to work with them.

The Ideal.—The whole subject with which in this chapter we have attempted to deal is profoundly important, and we have written in the fervent hope that the Headmasters of this country will neither attempt to maintain the unjustifiable and antiquated tradition of almost irresponsible isolation, nor yet submit to the limitations of the Continental position, still less to the constraints of the English Municipal School. It is our hope that in every English Secondary School there will be one man to be found whose word is law, and whom every one within the building shall unhesitatingly follow; who shall have full liberty to build up, within and without the walls, a school which shall reflect his ideals, and be, so far as he can make it, "himself writ large"; who shall concede to his colleagues their own spheres, and their own liberty, of action; who shall inspire them, and be inspired by them, working always in sympathy and charity. For himself there can be no more golden rule than that once tersely laid down by a Headmaster, himself a noble example of his own law: "Be what you want your boys to be; know what you want your boys to know; and put some enthusiasm into it."

CHAPTER IV

THE POSITION OF THE ASSISTANT-MASTER

IT is not too much to say that the position of the Assistant-master in English Secondary Schools, boarding and day schools alike, is at the present time by far the most important and pressing problem that demands solution. Generally speaking, he enjoys in this country neither the financial remuneration, nor the legal security, nor the leisure for the preparation of work, which the leading nations of the Continent recognise to be indispensable for effective teaching. And yet no one would attempt to deny that without a staff of contented and capable colleagues the efforts and reforms of the most gifted Headmaster are largely unavailing. Hitherto we have almost always, in our sporadic essays at educational regeneration, built, or rebuilt, some particular school with a laudable anxiety to be modern and attractive in our material equipment, and when we have offered a substantial salary in order to secure a Headmaster of personality and distinction, the task is, we think, completed. In reality the most important half has been forgotten, and we have acted like a man who, in a manufacturing enterprise, should erect an artistic engine-house, buy an expensive dynamo, and then economise by getting his machinery from the scrap-iron market. It is true that no one but a madman would hope to produce anything but damaged goods as the result of such obtuse economy, or would fail to see that a first-rate dynamo wasted most of its driving-power when the machinery always ran roughly and often was out of repair. But then the engine-shed is so artistic, and visitors only care to see the dynamo. And, after all, the product is but boys.

Salary.—Lest this should appear exaggerated, it may be well to cite one or two instances out of many which crowd the schoolmaster's mind. A certain well-known day school, when it moved to a more suitable site a generation or two

ago, expended so much money on its new building (which, in this case, sacrificed almost entirely utility to beauty) that it not only exhausted its available endowments, but ran so heavily into debt that its masters have till recently been paid the average salary of £150 per annum, non-resident. One of the most important London day schools has just had to pay so heavy a bill for architectural ornament to its new buildings, that the sufficiently poor financial prospects of its staff have been seriously impaired. A great public school of Royal foundation has also lately been adding to its premises by reducing salaries that were already a caricature of payment. Another public school of half its size, after spending considerably over £1,000 a year for the last twenty years upon buildings and equipment, and in spite of being saddled with a debt of £29,000, is about to lay out £10,000 on a new Dining-hall, probably at the expense, for the most part, of the school funds, although the maximum salary of the majority of the staff is only £200 resident, and although the projected building is as yet unnecessary and will commit the school to maintaining a centralised system which it has outgrown. Another school has long been busy building a Cathedral as a College Chapel, while paying nearly all its men a stipend of £100 a year resident.

No schoolmaster is averse to beautiful buildings in themselves. He is the first to recognise the truth of Plato's insistence on their educational value and to feel that a boy's nature is prone to respond to the beautiful objects which surround him. He knows that a boy, however shy of self-expression, has often been stirred and soothed by the fair parks and brave hill-sides and majestic quadrangles amid which the favoured minority of our youth pass their most impressionable years. But he realises, what no parent or boy dreams of, that these noble halls and chapels have almost always been built principally, and often entirely, at his own expense, and that he is without a home and family—unless he have the luck to be keeping a hotel for boys—to some extent because the school for which he lives mismanages funds he has no voice in controlling, but chiefly because the only way in which a school can compete successfully for the custom of the Philistines is by a building scheme which would fain prove the solidity of an education by the massive grandeur of its outer garment.

It is to be noticed that the figures quoted above (£200, £100 a year, resident) are by no means exceptional even in many of our principal public schools. In three or four of the oldest a master will begin on something like £300 non-

resident, and in time and with luck may look forward to doubling his income as tutor or housemaster. In some few schools, indeed, a housemaster who can keep his numbers sufficiently high and his boys' standard of feeding sufficiently low, may manage to approach his £1,000 a year. But such men, even in these rare schools, only amount to a third of the staff, owe their position generally to seniority rather than to peculiar efficiency, and themselves often feel keenly enough the anomaly of having to look to hotel-keeping as the chief source of their professional income. In schools which do their own catering, the Dormitory or Social Tutor will consider himself fortunate if he is paid £300, and the master of a detached house will be passing rich on £500 per annum. The majority of the public schools of the early Victorian foundation pay their men such stipends as £125 resident, or £150 non-resident, to begin with, rising to £180 or £200 respectively after, say, four years' service, and in some few cases going on until the maximum of £250, or £300 non-resident, is reached after ten years' service. In schools with the separate-house system, in which two-thirds of the posts are necessarily non-resident, a few of the younger men are often invited to help housemasters as house tutors, receiving in return free quarters and sometimes a small gratuity. But this is a private arrangement, and no more to be taken into account in considering the salaries paid by the school, than is the practice common among masters of adding to their income by sacrificing their scanty leisure to giving private tuition, with regard to which the school only steps in to fix the number of hours to be given and the rate of payment: this may be assessed at an average of £5 a term for three hours per week, as a rule only one boy being taken at a time, £3 each being paid if two are taken together.

Such, then, is the financial position of the men who claim, with some degree of justice, to be in the front rank of their profession. It is, briefly, a position which allows a bachelor who is keen on his work to live a happy and useful life, with enough money, if his post be resident, to get through term time comfortably and go abroad, should he wish it, during the vacations. If his mastership is non-resident, he will find, in the first years at least, that there is little enough balance for the holidays, if he lives, even modestly, up to the standard which his position demands. But at any rate he is, for the moment, as well paid as a junior Civilian, and has opportunities for game-playing and travel which no other profession affords. This fact admittedly supplies the reason why so many men, on leaving the University without any definite

prospect in another direction, are glad to take up public school work. In the language of many of them, they "stick the morning and evening grind" for the sake of the afternoon on the playing-field, or else "live for the holidays." Ten years later we find most of them settled down to a celibate life of small comforts with good-humoured resignation, speculating on the remote chance of a house, or the remoter possibility of a lady with money being willing to add her contribution to their £200 or £300 a year, in order that they may join the ranks of the lucky few who have gained at last a home of their own, and, wonder of wonders in English school-life, boys of their own to educate as well as other people's. No one who knows them will refuse his esteem to these excellent men. They have, with what light is in them, worked on with magnificent energy and self-surrender for the greatness and honour of the institution to which they are attached, for the fullest welfare, mental, moral, and physical, of the boys amongst whom, and, literally, for whom, they live. They have generally character in the robust English sense of the word, and the ability to inspire it. They growl occasionally among themselves about their conditions and prospects, but they have, not rarely, foregone the bulk of their small salaries to help their school through a crisis. If they are led by a chief who is straightforward and sympathetic, they ask nothing better than to stay in the ranks until old age and poverty overtake them. They, as much as any Arnold, have inspired the manliness and modesty which characterise the best type of public-school boy, and distinguish him, to his advantage, from the product of any other nation. They number a small percentage of the ablest men in England among their ranks: as a class they are capable out of all proportion to their pay or position in society—and yet the unwelcome fact remains that they are, generally speaking, victims of a chaotic, unintelligent system of national education, without a career, without legal security, even, as a rule, without the home-life to which every other class of men may hopefully aspire. They are our modern monks, and celibates without the vocation. Joining the profession in frequent ignorance of its financial outlook, they learn worldly wisdom when it is too late to profit by it. And since the supply is now increasingly maintained by those who put sports first and brain-work second, who laugh at theories of education and methods of teaching, who rather suspect cleverness, there is a growing danger in our public schools lest they should perpetuate their own imperfect intellectual tradition, now that the abler men are avoiding teaching. A wise country would perhaps take

steps to secure for the upbringing of her sons a race of masters who should understand the joys and workings of the mind as well as they already understand the needs and workings of the body; who should combine intellectual with moral inspiration, who could all afford a home and family, who, in short, should be normal, complete men, with an assured career.

If we turn to consider the stipends of masters in day schools, we shall find, generally speaking, a still worse state of affairs. In a very few great town-schools, like St. Paul's, Merchant Taylors', the City of London, the Manchester Grammar School, King Edward's High School, Birmingham, and the Glasgow High School, salaries comparatively, though very unequally, good are paid, with the natural result that staffs of noted relative efficiency are secured. Yet, even in schools of this type and position, the prospects are often hardly adequate to attract and retain the services of the really able men necessary to work an efficient system of secondary education. In such a system the assistant-masters would outnumber the headmasters in the average proportion of twenty to one, since the very small country schools would disappear. For the overwhelming majority of men headships would therefore be an impossible object of ambition, and it is probable that in England, as already in France and Germany, an improved financial and professional status would deter all masters but those exceptionally endowed with a capacity for organisation and leadership from even desiring such posts. They would prefer to remain teachers of subjects which they knew and liked, in intimate contact with a limited number of boys, rather than undertake the worry and responsibility and dissipation of energy inevitable to a headmaster's life. Great leaders, with the vigour and personality requisite to make and maintain a great school, are, however, not the chief need of England to-day, nor likely ever to be lacking in the scholastic profession in this country. The present problem is to give to assistant-masters a career which shall satisfy men of keen intellect, teaching capacity, and unselfish strength, not only when they are young and unmarried, but permanently, as a profession complete in itself, secure, equitable, reasonably rewarded, so that its members may be neither celibate during their manhood nor destitute in old age. Such a career is only possible when the salary increases up to a substantial maximum. Schools which pay an initial stipend of £180 and increase it by an annual rise of £10 up to £300, have not solved the financial problem, however proud they may justly be of attempting

its solution. Moreover, such day schools can be counted on both hands.

For it is when we come to survey the smaller secondary schools, more especially the country grammar schools, that the position of the assistant-master reveals itself in its real nakedness. Such schools, and they are in an enormous majority, have neither the money nor the social prestige to attract first-rate men, although it is probably true to say that they have hitherto enjoyed, and exploited, the services of masters of an ability and character altogether disproportionate to the stipend they receive. But, in spite of this admission, it is impossible to deny that the men of the intellectual vigour and professional enthusiasm which are the first necessity for a real system of national education such as other countries enjoy, have always been rare as assistants in the smaller schools, and are daily growing rarer. Prof. Sadler, in his Report on Secondary Education in Essex, lays just emphasis upon this fact. He states that at one University there were five times the number of applicants for certain teaching posts in 1890 as in 1904, that for many advertised berths there are no applicants, and that an association for filling scholastic vacancies registered 1,602 candidates in 1890–3, 1,236 in 1894–7, 782 in 1898–1901, and 638 in 1902–5. He adds to this statement certain figures of extreme value and interest, which perhaps sufficiently explain so alarming a decrease. The average salary for assistant masters in Essex is, we learn, £142 1*s.* 3*d.* per annum. This excludes Felsted and Chigwell and the East Ham Secondary School, where additional evening work is paid extra. With these exceptions, in all Essex only six masters received £200, and no master received as much as £260. In 1904, the average salary was £126 in Derbyshire, £160 in Hampshire, and £151 in Liverpool and district. In London, out of 327 assistant-masters, 208, or 64·3 per cent., received between £100 and £175. The average stipend of the whole number was £152 11*s.* 9*d.*, while their average length of service exceeded twelve years.[1] Few will dispute the comment: "Nothing but a dead lift to assistant-teachers' salaries and prospects will secure the efficiency of English secondary education."

Such then is the price at which the indifference or ignorance of the country has allowed the services of its educators to be assessed in some of the districts which have come within the scope of Prof. Sadler's investigations. The figures are

[1] An inquiry, in which one of us took part a few years ago, into the secondary school salaries in the West Riding of Yorkshire gave the average between £120 and £130.

startling enough in themselves, but they speak of averages only and tend rather to disguise the really appalling conditions of life for masters in the smallest type of country grammar school. All who are intimately acquainted with the profession have come across the place where some thirty boys are collected in the local school of a moribund country town, the school which employs two assistants, probably a young Frenchman at £30, and a middle-aged Englishman, still reading for his London Intermediate, at £50 a year, resident. All who have seen such a school remember, are unable to forget, the gloomy, dilapidated masters' room, its empty grate and broken wicker-chairs; the miserable cubicles in which the masters sleep amidst the few boarders in the melancholy, half-deserted dormitory; the pathetic apologies of the exploited, overworked, quite prospectless men, as they do the honours of their "home." And we reflect, with shame, that such schools, of old foundations and professedly giving higher education, are far more typical of our average English secondary school than are Malvern or St. Paul's, and that it is by such caricatures that Continental nations judge us and estimate the value that we put on learning, and the honour in which we hold our teachers. It is not surprising that our Primary Schoolmasters, who have won for themselves independence and some equity of remuneration, regard their secondary school collaborators with amazement and contempt.

In dealing with the position of assistant-masters in secondary education it is impossible to avoid touching on the conditions of their colleagues in preparatory schools. It is true that the education which these schools give is, for the most part, really primary, but in so far as they employ masters of the same educational and social tradition, in all its grades, as the men engaged in secondary teaching, it is necessary to include such masters in this survey, since the same professional interests are involved. Such preparatory schools, with the exception of the junior schools which are attached to some of the great public schools and a few of the day schools, and which are generally financed by the governors, are, in this country, the private ventures of an individual. A certain number, with a well-established connection and charging high fees, enjoy a relative security and great periodic prosperity: the majority are kept up only at the cost of great anxiety and effort. With rare exceptions, the result is that salaries are the last thing to be raised and the first thing to be reduced. The type of man looked for is generally the University man with a poor degree and good athletic qualifications, who has

not been lucky enough to get into a public school, or who prefers work with young boys. It is probably no exaggeration to say that the position of these men is the most hopeless in the profession, except that of the masters in the smallest grammar schools. They are the personal servants of a private individual who is generally a good fellow, but may be the opposite. What is worse, they are the servants of an individual whose school may fail, or its numbers fall, at any moment, and who is certain, being human, to put aside profits for future emergencies or retirement, rather than spend them on improving the stipends of men who are easily replaced. It is impossible to arrive at definite figures in the case of private schools, but it is likely that the salary scale is between £50 and £150 resident, and only exceptionally above the £100. It is, again, not unusual in the smaller private schools for masters to be engaged on so-called "mutual terms," whereby they receive board and lodging, a certain amount of free time, and a certain amount of coaching for their next examination, often the London Intermediate, in return for their services in educating the boys. And it must be remembered that preparatory schoolmasters are rarely off duty during the twenty-four hours, and that their market value diminishes as they approach middle-life. Such is the treatment we bestow upon the rank and file of the men engaged in the most difficult, as it is perhaps the most delightful, branch of teaching. France and Germany have special public schools for their little boys, taught by highly qualified, specially trained, and adequately paid fathers of families.

It will probably be worth while corroborating the above estimate of the financial position of the assistant-master by quoting from an article which the present Headmaster of the Perse School contributed on this subject a few years ago to *The Contemporary Review*. We make no excuse for dealing at length with a matter so pressing and so long ignored. Dr. Rouse writes:

"To take first the returns of the Charity Commission, we find the following figures:[1]

Number of Schools.	Number of Assistant-masters.	Average Salary.
10 first grade	251	£242·77
190 others, first or second grade .	899	105·19
Total . . 200 .	1,150	£135·22

[1] "Report IV. 539. Two hundred and one other schools failed to give the number of assistants.

"Twenty East Anglian schools give the following results:

Number of Schools.	Number of Assistants.	Average Salary.
20	86	£103·6

"In eleven smaller schools the average salary is £52; and these data combined give a sum just below £120 as the average salary of an assistant. Residence, *i.e.* board and lodging, is included in some cases; but we may leave this out of account, because it is payment for extra work done out of school. The Victorian public schools, such as Clifton, Cheltenham, and Marlborough, and others which though noted in the past are of late growth, such as Tonbridge and Bedford, are not included in the above list, which is meant to illustrate the usual conditon of country grammar schools. If these be included, the average will be slightly raised. At Cheltenham there are one or two posts at about £300, one at least of £100 only, and the others range from £200 to £250 as a rule; Clifton and Marlborough do not greatly differ. The state of things in Bedford is thus described by one who knows: 'There is no scheme of salaries in either of the two big schools. *Each man fights for what he can get:* if he makes a good bargain to start with, well for him.' A few years ago the average salary at Bedford Grammar School was £174, but many form-masters received £150 or less, some under £100; all these being non-resident. At Tonbridge there is in my table only one salary higher than £200. There is usually no automatic increase; if a master wishes to marry, or thinks his increased experience makes his services more valuable, he may have to get another post (if he can) in another school. As to the smaller schools, the account of the career of a Cambridge B.A. of my acquaintance may be of interest. He began in Andover Grammar School at £15 resident, and, after several moves from one private school to another, where the pittance was somewhat increased, he attained, after nine years' experience, to the magnificent stipend of £140, non-resident, in the Grammar School of a country town, which for his sake I forbear to mention. A London B.A., whose life-story is also before me, now receives £130, non-resident, after eighteen years' experience. The same pitiful story comes from scores of small country schools.

"The headmasters' salaries present a pleasing contrast. In the best paid of the schools mentioned, Tonbridge, the headmaster receives £5,000 and upwards, while his assistants have less than £200. The usual average is ten times that of the

assistant, falling to five times in the East Anglian Schools, and even occasionally less. So far as my knowledge goes (and, as regards some of these schools, it is not negative knowledge), neither headmaster nor governing body have expressed any dissatisfaction with the state of affairs, or have ever considered means whereby the salaries of assistants might be permanently improved. The chance of succeeding to a boarding-house keeps hope alive in some schools, and this, rather than the earned reward of merit, would seem to be the present educational ideal.

"Can any one wonder that there is, as I have said, a feeling of deep discontent in the teaching profession? It is not every one who can get a boarding-house; and those who do, naturally, try to make the fat years swallow up the lean, and stick to it as long as they can. The majority of masters cannot hope for a boarding-house; neither can they hope for a post in one of the half-dozen schools which are comparatively rich. The assistant-masters in the richer schools number about 200, and there are as many capable scholars and mathematicians stamped and certificated every two years at Oxford and Cambridge. Still less can the average assistant hope for a headmastership of his own. In the smaller schools such a post is a very doubtful gain; it brings great risk and small profit. And it should not be forgotten that at present all the chief headmasterships are given to clergymen, in spite of the law which makes laymen equally eligible. Only one-seventh of the schoolmasters in this country are clergymen, which leaves the other six-sevenths without any reasonable hope of preferment."

And Dr. Rouse goes on to point out the result of all this in the loss to the profession of its ablest men, and cites the writer in *Longman's Magazine* (1898), who traces the fate of sixty assistant-masters known to him. Four of these have got schools of their own, and eight have became curates. Amongst the others are a barrister, a solicitor, a gold-digger, a professional tenor, a bookmaker, and a grower of tomatoes. Two are out of work, and cannot find any; one poor old man shot himself; twenty-four only remain as they were, and fifteen have completely disappeared, leaving no trace.

Figures like these need no comment. What the public needs is to reflect on what such a state of things involves in the education of its boys. Although, as we have said, it is certain that men have devoted themselves in the past, and are generally devoting themselves to-day, to the fulfilment of their duties in a spirit by no means commensurate

with their pay, yet the almost universal feeling of discontent prevalent in the profession is undoubtedly having a bad effect upon the work done, and the manner in which it is performed. A gloomy, despondent man, even if he tries to do his best, is certain to produce an inferior kind of best, and his gloom is inevitably reflected upon his class. And the less idealistic master who is becoming more common to-day, does not even aim at doing his best, but argues that since all his efforts would go unrewarded, he can only be expected to do the minimum consistent with keeping his post. Hence we get the man, increasingly frequent in day schools, who limits his horizon to getting through the school hours with as little personal expenditure of energy as may be, and then clearing off the premises at the first opportunity; who gets as many of his exercises corrected in class as possible, and makes his preparation for a lesson so occasional as at length to consider it entirely superfluous. If it is suggested to him, unofficially, that he might help the games sometimes, or run a library, or see a parent, or explain a difficulty to a boy who has been absent or is stupid, he has the reply ready that he is not paid for this, that he is already working for the wages of a labourer, and that his colleagues who take a different view of their profession are fools for their pains. We have remarked that form-work, though of primary importance, is often subordinated to athletics by our public-school masters. But whatever may be their intellectual incapacity or indifference, they are rarely slack: they do help on the games or some other sphere of boyish activity, and feel keen about their school. Their day-school colleagues who are slack in work are usually slack all round, and display neither the intellectual, didactic competence of the Continental master, nor the friendly interest in boys that has hitherto characterised the English schoolmaster and produced such excellent results in their training in manliness and *esprit de corps*. Something has been done to check this spirit by the adoption of the "house" system in day schools, but the only real preventive is to pay salaries which, first, will secure the right man, and secondly, will give him no excuse for neglect of duty. As Prof. Sadler says in his Essex Report, "The personality of the teacher is the central fact. The men we need should combine intellectual ability, a high standard of knowledge, teaching power, sympathy with boys, and high personal character. In no country is it more necessary to retain teachers of all-round capacity, vigorous initiative, and trained aptitude. At no time has their work been more difficult and responsible than during this period

of intellectual and social transition. Besides the imparting of knowledge, the teacher's work is, in the words of a great writer, to fill his boys 'with vigorous manliness and to give them a good heart as a radical possession and habit.' 'Character makes character.'"

The truth of this is obvious, and since the prospects of Assistant-masters are getting generally known in the Universities, with the natural result that very few first-rate men now join their ranks, the levelling-up of salaries to a reasonable standard has now become a matter of national necessity, as it has long been a matter of common justice. As a result of the inefficiency revealed by the Government investigations of 1868 and 1869, Assistant-masters were deprived of their previous freehold tenure in endowed schools, and since their number has been increased while endowments and fees remained stationary, or decreased, the result has been that they have lost both security and adequate payment. We shall deal with the question of tenure later on, together with the subject of pensions, a national scheme for which would do more than anything else to improve the master's outlook. For the moment let us consider what kind of salaries are paid abroad to Assistant-masters.

In France, the scale varies according to the teacher's qualifications, the pay being lower for the *licencié* teaching in a Collège, or holding a chair in a smaller Lycée, than for an *agrégé*, who teaches only in a Lycée. Again, the rate of payment is higher in the more expensive Paris district. A *licencié*, or *certifié*, begins with 2,800 fr. (£112) and rises to 4,800 fr. (£192), except in the district of the capital, where he receives an indemnity for higher expenses. An *agrégé* will start in a provincial Lycée at 3,200 fr. (£128) and mount to 5,200 fr. (£208) if he stays in the provinces, whereas in the department of the Seine he will go up to 7,500 fr. (£300), and every really distinguished master is likely to reach this goal of ambition. Besides this, all *agrégés* receive a *traitment d'agrégation* which brings in £20 a year, and in addition a few seniors are granted a *complément de traitment* to the tune of £40 round Paris, and £20 in the provinces. In Germany, the masters of Higher Schools who are fully qualified, begin at about £135 and rise by £15 every three years up to about £300, sometimes £320. In Prussia, rather less than half are given in addition a *Zulage*, or extra sum of £45 a year, as a recognition of skill in teaching or excellence of scholarship. To these amounts should be added annual allowances for house rent, varying between £18 and £45 a year, according to the size of the town. These salaries do

not at first sight appear princely, considering the qualifications of the masters, but it must be remembered that the standard, if not the cost, of living is much lower abroad than with us; that the teacher has a secure career, followed by a substantial pension; that stipends are freely offered for travel in both countries, both for modern and classical masters; that, in brief, their salary compares well with that earned in other professions, and allows them to bring up, and properly educate, even a large family.[1]

The English average we have seen to be just over £120, non-resident. The most satisfactory step towards improvement as yet taken has been the scale recently instituted by the London County Council, namely £150, rising by annual increments of £10 to £300, with further increase up to £350 in positions of special responsibility. Again, the same body has recognised a sound principle in allowing two years' previous experience in secondary teaching outside London to count as one year's service to the Council, though ideally there is no reason why such experience should be assessed at only half its real value. Also the scale is in practice less generous than it appears at first sight, since all salaries in London should be at least £30 higher than elsewhere, owing to greater cost of living. We have seen that this increase is customary abroad. Still, the lead given by the Council is of excellent augury, and corresponds with the recommendations of Prof. Sadler for the County of Essex. What is needed now is for the Board to *insist*, not as hitherto merely recommend, that governing bodies should regard the augmentation of all salaries below the London scale as the first and most necessary charge upon grants received from educational authorities, and withdraw its own grant unless the augmentation is made. Nothing short of this will prove effective as a leverage for the "dead lift" we have seen to be required. And certain principles should be laid down by the Board as to what men are to receive the higher scale, if the right men are to be attracted into teaching. First and foremost this country must learn to put a premium on full mental equipment and ability by paying a master specially qualified by degree or attainments higher than the man of provedly less

[1] We are glad to learn from the November, 1908, number of *School* that an additional sum of £15,000,000 is, by the will of the Kaiser, about to be raised in Prussia in order to increase the salaries of Government officials. The secondary teacher's salary is henceforward to be elevated to the level of that of officials of the first class, such as judges and medical officers. His initial stipend will be £135, which will rise by yearly increments to £360 in twenty-one years; moreover, the house allowance, which at present averages £1 a week, will be increased by one-half.

capacity, although, *for the present transition period only*, equal financial advantage should be given to the man of long experience and service. Higher salaries should be paid also to the Second Master, to Heads of Departments, and to the Head of the Lower School; and lastly, it should be made compulsory, in order to promote free circulation inside a national profession, that all previous experience gained in an efficient school should count fully in fixing a master's salary when he changes school. The Board would be well advised, also, to enforce the principle that when residence is designed to be part-payment for teaching services, some deductions may be made from the salary; but where residence involves further important duties and responsibilities, no such deduction should be made. Finally, it should make clear to all school authorities that it is legally impossible to require a man to pay a substitute in cases of illness, and forbid any attempt to exact such payment.

Next, it is obvious that the enormous disparity between the salaries of Head- and Assistant-masters must gradually disappear. In France the *Proviseur* gets in Paris £60 and in the provinces £92 more than the best-paid professor, and has free quarters. In Germany the *Direktor* is paid a maximum salary of £360, plus £75 for house rent, after nine years' service. It has been suggested by one of the first headmasters in the country that the easiest immediate reform would be to cut down all headmasters' salaries that were excessively disproportionate, and divide the money obtained among the staff. Certainly this might very properly be done as the posts fell vacant; and if such a practice were recognised as inevitable throughout the profession, there could be no hardship in any individual case, nor would able men be deterred from standing for a particular position if they knew that a salary diminished within limits awaited them wherever they applied. It is the exception, not the rule, that is provocative of ill-feeling and opposition. At the same time, it is highly improbable that the Continental practice of giving headmasters only a slightly better stipend than their colleagues would prove satisfactory in England. In the first place, an English headmaster's work is often so enormous in quantity, and demands such a rare combination of great qualities for its successful execution, that not only must the very best men in the country be secured, but their special gifts and unending labours merit a conspicuous reward. The result of excessive levelling-down is seen in the local second-grade schools: it is not often satisfactory in the type of man attracted. It seems, therefore, advisable

that a headmaster's salary should be about double that of his best-paid assistant, and that some few great prizes should for a while still be left in the profession in order to maintain its prestige. Ultimately we may reach the more ideal attitude which is content with honour only, but that time is not yet.

The Assistant-masters in Private Schools, who, as we have seen, are the most to be pitied of all the victims of the present régime, must be guaranteed, by the Board, an adequate minimum salary corresponding to their qualifications, and in time all unregistered men must be disqualified from teaching, whether in Private Schools or Public. The capable teacher is the chief thing required, if we are to attain to Prof. Sadler's splendid ideal of a national system of Secondary Education that shall combine the didactic excellence of Germany with the morally invigorating corporate life of the best English tradition. To get him we must pay him, and the Public-School Master has proved to be in almost as sore straits as his colleague in the Grammar School. When we have paid him properly, we shall be able to insist on getting full value for our money. Proper payment, however, is not, as we shall now proceed to show, the sole guarantee for securing the right type of man.

Registration and "Training."—Equally important for making the position of the assistant-master secure and honourable (in a word, professional) is the question of registration and training. It may be at once admitted that a special training in teaching, however obvious its necessity for teachers may appear at first glance, has not as yet commended itself to the majority of masters. Most of them have been brought up in days when such schemes for securing efficiency were unheard of in this country. They are themselves often successful, original, and brilliant: though sometimes, perhaps, they are the converse of all this. They meet younger recruits to the profession who have gone through such a training, and who do not look back upon it with particular enthusiasm, or regard it as having been altogether worth while. They therefore go on singing the old song about the teacher "being born, not made" (which, in a way, is true), and triumphantly quote the late Edward Bowen's maxim that "a bad man teaching history well is a far worse thing than a good man teaching it badly" (which is drawing a herring across the trail). They seem to forget that natural gifts for teaching can be perfected by training and by knowledge, just as is the case in games and music; that the professional can generally account for the most brilliant amateur, and that they are, as teachers, paid

professionals, who should know, if they are to teach, not only the details of several games of the mind, but the physical conditions of the successful playing of all its games, and know all this with that expert knowledge which comes of science and experience combined.

Now, it is certain that the indifference, if not contempt, hitherto shown to training by the profession as a whole is due, not to wilful blindness, but rather to lack of knowledge on the side of those to whom the training is offered, and also, up to now, to the failure of the authorities who offer or recommend such training to discover a solution of the problem which by its proved utility shall convert the sceptical. Such a lack of knowledge on the one part and failure to convince on the other are, however, inevitable in the initial stages of all improvements, and it is probable that when both factors, as in this case, are a keen and disinterested body of men, equally guided by the desire to serve a common cause, the estrangement will prove of short duration. There are signs that the younger men desire a knowledge of their subject that shall be less incomplete and haphazard, and a command of methods that shall be less empirical. Unfortunately they do not as a rule discover their deficiencies until it is too late to remedy them, except at the cost of resigning their position and giving up work for a year. This they cannot afford to do, and it is absurd to expect such a sacrifice. The training must perforce precede the practice, and if it is to be ensured it must be insisted on, by the Board of Education and by all others responsible for making appointments, as a qualification that will be expected from every man who enters the profession after a certain date.

The[1] first attempt made in this country to secure training for Secondary teachers was by the famous No. 2 Bill brought forward by Mr. Forster in 1869, for the organisation of Secondary Education. The Bill perished before the second reading, but it remains famous because it was the first assertion in England of the State's supreme right to control every branch of education. Among other provisions it created an Educational Council, which included in its functions:

(1) The regulating and arranging of an examination for teachers who voluntarily applied to be so examined;

(2) The granting of certificates to teachers who passed this examination, and the keeping of a register of such teachers;

(3) The keeping of a register of private schools, and the drawing up of conditions for the registry of such schools.

[1] For the following sketch of the history of the subject we are indebted to Mr. Storr's contribution to *National Education: a Symposium* (Murray).

After a fixed date no head or assistant teacher was, under the terms of the Bill, to be appointed in any endowed school unless he possessed this certificate of fitness. Had the Bill been passed, teachers would have belonged to a learned profession during the last forty years, instead of remaining a heterogeneous body of men of ill-defined status, social and professional.

The failure of a good Bill in 1869 was followed in 1881 by the rejection of a bad Bill introduced by Sir John Lubbock. This Bill "admitted all sorts and conditions of Secondary teachers—membership of the College of Preceptors was a sufficient qualification; it recognised training only as one of several alternative qualifications; it contained no sanction, and offered no inducement to registered teachers, save the doubtful privilege of exemption from serving on juries or in the militia."

The third abortive effort was in 1891, when a Select Committee of the House of Commons refused to recommend to the House either of two legislative Bills which had been referred to its consideration—the old Lubbock Bill under the new name of the Sir Richard Temple Bill, and the Arthur Acland Bill, which included all teachers, Primary and Secondary; insisted on training as the chief qualification; and contained sanctions which excluded untrained teachers from endowed schools and from ability to recover tuition fees in a court of law. The Committee, while declining to recommend, showed a distinct leaning to the Acland Bill.

In 1895 the Bryce Commission issued its report on Secondary Education, and recommended a single register for all teachers who fulfilled the prescribed conditions, irrespective of the class of school. The basis of the register was to be, not occupation, but qualification and ability, in order that the passage between different types of schools might be kept open. The two chief qualifications for inscription on the register are stated as follows:

"(1) A degree or a certificate of general attainment, granted by some university or body recognised for that purpose by the registrative authority; and

"(2) A certificate or diploma of adequate knowledge of the theory and practice of education, granted by a university or body recognised as above."

These recommendations were embodied in the Board of Education Act of 1899, which enacted that the Consultative Committee should proceed at once to the preparation of a registration scheme. In 1902 a register was definitely established by an Order in Council.

This register, upon which so many hopes were built, has proved a failure, and been formally abandoned. It was based upon the division of Elementary and Secondary teachers into separate columns A and B, and this separation of the two branches proved distasteful to masters in Primary Schools, who argued, with some justice, that the open door between different classes of schools, recommended by the Bryce Commission, had been shut by such a scheme. Moreover, the administrative machinery, divided amongst the Consultative Committee, the Board of Education, and the Registration Council, was unnecessarily cumbersome. In all, 86,000 teachers registered under column A and 11,000 under column B. In 1907, when the register was abolished as unworkable, it was provided that there should be formed a Registration Council, representative of the teaching profession, which should frame and keep a register of teachers in one column, giving their names and qualifications.

It has seemed necessary to give this brief survey of what has been attempted and effected by legislation for the registration and training of teachers during the last forty years, in order to show that there has been a steady demand on the part of expert inquirers for some form of State control of secondary education, and to show that the problems of registration and training have been, and must be, considered together. The formation of a register is indeed the first step towards making teaching a real profession, closed to all but properly qualified men, with legal status and legal sanctions. It would exclude the charlatan, and thereby confer an immense benefit on the public. Without necessarily making teachers a branch of the Civil Service, it would give them recognition as public servants, under a real, though not hampering, form of public control. The State, acting through its Registration Council (which should be representative of all grades of education), would grant, or refuse, entrance to the profession, for teachers in public and private schools alike. After a transition period, during which it could insist upon an increasing proportion of trained teachers in secondary schools, it would make training an indispensable qualification for all schoolmasters, since it would refuse admission to the register of all who were not trained, except experienced men already engaged in teaching. Further, since it would make it illegal for all unregistered, *i.e.* unqualified, men to practise, whether in public or private schools, it would put an immediate stop to the exploiting of public ignorance by the educational speculator, with his staff of underpaid and often illiterate victims. The better

type of private school, on the other hand, would be greatly helped by the extinction of its impudent rival. We do not allow any one to practise as a lawyer or a doctor, without proper credentials. It is equally important, both for the public and the educational practitioner alike, that the profession of teaching should be similarly safeguarded.

As to the precise form which such a register should take, much can doubtless be said, and will be said by the new Registration Council when it is established. In passing, we would emphasise the obvious by stating that a Council which is to command the respect of, and be of real use to, the profession must consist of a majority of teachers representing its various branches, primary, secondary, and university, and a minority of men and women fully trusted both by the teachers and by the public interested in education. On the other hand, it seems to us that there should be little dispute about the main purpose of the register and the shape in which it should, roughly, embody this purpose. All that we can say on this point has already been sufficiently well said, twelve years ago, by the Bryce Commission :[1]

"Every one agrees that the register should prescribe a high level of qualification. It should only register what is worth registering. To pitch the standard low would be to deprive the register of its chief value as a guide to the public and as a stimulus to the teaching profession. For, if registration conferred no distinction, many teachers of high standing would not trouble to enter their names on the roll, and, consequently, absence from the register would not necessarily imply inferiority of qualification. If, however, the standard were kept high, if admission to the roll were granted only to those who produced evidence of considerable attainment and practised skill, then registration would be coveted as a distinction, exclusion would be a recognised mark of inferiority and incompetence. . . . To the impartial tests imposed on candidates for registration, all teachers would justly be admitted without regard to their sphere of employment or place of previous preparation. Whether a teacher chose to work in a private or endowed, in an elementary or a secondary school, or was engaged by a private family, would be indifferent to the registering authority. Its duty would be to secure the due qualification of every person who aspired to a place on the list."

[1] See *Report*, vol. i. pp. 192-8, for a detailed account of the reasons which led to their recommendations. See also pp. 318-21 in the same volume.

With this object in view, the Commission, as we have seen, made a degree, or its equivalent, and a diploma of teaching competence the two conditions of registration. The register of 1902 proved impossible because it neglected the recommendations of the Commission, by making a dividing line between primary and secondary teachers. The new register will, it is hoped, while avoiding this mistake, take care to avoid the much more fatal error of being so inclusive as to be meaningless. If it is to include dancing and sewing teachers along with Heads of Houses, it will defeat its own end. Its object is simply to give a list of all men highly qualified to teach subjects other than special, as drawing, or purely technical, as shorthand. These men may be teaching in any kind of school or college, the sphere of activity being immaterial. Elementary teachers have already a very real register in the list of certificated teachers: those who went on to a university degree would become registered as well as certificated, and would become qualified for work in secondary schools, should they wish it. The number of such registered teachers in elementary schools would become greater yearly, if there were an adequate financial recognition, and many men would choose to widen their experience by exchanging secondary for primary work during a certain time. In this way the social estrangement between different grades of teachers would be lessened, and the standard of attainment raised in both branches alike, since it would be made impossible for all except men who had given the necessary guarantee of culture and teaching power, to aspire to any post in secondary schools, and, as time went on, to the most important posts in primary education. Similarly, it might do something, at the other end of the scale, towards bringing together the teachers in secondary and in university work. The way is long before we shall have university lecturers and tutors who are certificated as skilled teachers, and who have preferably had previous experience of teaching in the schools they so light-heartedly examine. But even in England we are beginning to think that such reforms have something in them.

Such, then, would be, in brief, the object of a really useful register. As to its shape, we might here again quote with advantage the Bryce Commissioners:

"For purposes of ready reference the names of all the teachers on the register should be entered in alphabetical order, each entry showing the date of the teacher's registration and a brief record of his qualifications and actual experience.

"It would also be convenient if, in a second part of the register, the names were arranged according to the kinds of schools in which the teachers were employed. The names of persons qualified to teach in special subjects, *e.g.* drawing, music, gymnastics, and such purely technical subjects as shorthand, but not possessing the general qualifications described above, should be included in a supplemental register, such qualifications being required as the Educational Council may from time to time see fit to prescribe."

It will be noticed that this supplementary register would be invaluable, not only to the general public, but also as a list from which special teachers in schools should alone be chosen. For such a register, when completed, to become really useful it must be made easily accessible in every district. A copy should be found in every public library.

We may omit any detailed discussion as to the temporary provisions that will be required in order to include teachers already in the profession. It seems fair that the production of a satisfactory record of three years' teaching, whether continuous or not, should be allowed to replace the teaching diploma, and that after the lapse of a certain number of years no unregistered person should be allowed to be appointed in a school recognised, or controlled, by public authority. Meanwhile, until the register appears, the recognition of the school, upon proved fitness, by the Board of Education affords parents some guarantee of competence. But fitness can only be a relative term until every member of the staff is registered as competent, and in any case the recognition of schools is in itself no contribution to the special problem of uniting scattered masters and giving to each qualified individual real membership of a learned profession, independently of the school in which he happens to be teaching. The Board of Education will err, as well as disappoint, if it contents itself with this purely provisional solution. Besides, it is pledged to the register.

Although Assistant-masters will only be a body of trained experts when registration has become a fact, this is no reason why one of the great aims of registration, namely, the securing of training, should not gain immediate realisation. Whatever certain public-school masters, able and incompetent, may think of training, and whatever variety of opinion there may be as to the best way in which such training may be given, there is no longer any doubt that education authorities are, all over Europe, beginning, or elaborating and improving, schemes for training their masters. Training has come to

stay, here as elsewhere, and the Board of Education now announces that it may require in the future a certain proportion of all new appointments, in recognised Secondary Schools, to consist of persons who have gone through an approved course of training. It is no longer possible to justify the exclusion of secondary teachers from the training required of their primary colleagues, by claiming that training is only a substitute for general culture, and that secondary teachers possess culture. The excellences of culture are great and various, but not only is culture somewhat to seek in our schools, public and municipal alike, but it has *per se* an only indirect influence on the science and art of teaching. Girls' schools have long valued training in their teachers, while boys' schools have been inclined to think themselves superior to any needs felt by women or "board-school men." Let us hear Mr. Francis Storr [1] on the result:

"As an examiner for the University of London and other public bodies, it has been part of my duty for many years past to hear lessons given by candidates for teaching diplomas, both men and women. The women, as a rule, had been through a training college; the men, as a rule, were acting teachers. I only wish that any disbeliever in training could attend a pair of these lessons and judge for himself. Whatever his prejudices at starting, he would be forced to recognise the difference between the work of the skilled and the unskilled practitioner, the artist and the artisan."

Before considering what appear to be the measures needed to secure the best training in this country, let us, after our rough comparative method, review what has been, and is being, done to train secondary teachers in France and Germany. Since we have waited so long, we must insist on profiting by the experience of our neighbours, in order that, by warning or example, they may show us the shortest cut to the most efficient system. We will begin with France.

Professional Training in France.—It must be admitted that hitherto the steps taken by the French Government to ensure professional training to secondary schoolmasters have been confessedly inadequate. It is true that France possesses that famous institution, the École Normale Supérieure, or higher normal school, but till quite recently this has made no pretence to be a school of pedagogy, but has aimed solely at the erudition and personal culture of its pupils. In any case, it trains only about a hundred of the intellectual *élite* of France,

[1] *National Education: a Symposium*, p. 75.

who are admitted by competition, and prepare in it, under expert guidance, the *licence* and the *agrégation*; and out of the thirty or forty pupils who leave every year, by no means all go on to teach in the Lycées, a considerable minority being drafted into higher university education. Since the reconstitution of the University of Paris, however, the École Normale has been obviously doing double duty with the Sorbonne, and to the tardy recognition of this fact we may attribute the new arrangement by which Normaliens are to receive their general instruction outside the school, which is, for its part, to emphasise its true task as the trainer of teachers. It is as yet too soon to gauge results, but such a change cannot fail to confer great benefit upon the teaching profession, if only by removing the indifference and contempt with which schoolmasters, in France as here, are still prone to regard the science of education. Even under the old régime, it is to be noticed that the pupils were required to give lessons in their third year, and to spend a fortnight in a Lycée before leaving. Training has always been recognised in principle by French educationists, whatever the shortcomings of their practice.

Besides the newly reorganised Normal School, the most important advance towards extending at least some theoretical knowledge of education in France has been the making it compulsory for all candidates for the *agrégation* to attend a course of lectures on education at the University centre to which they are attached. In Paris, the late M. Marion led the way to reviving interest in education as a special study, and gave lectures, partly public, on the broader aspects of the subject, and partly restricted to actual or aspirant teachers, of all grades. But until three years ago there was no series of lectures given for prospective secondary teachers only, and dealing with the problems of secondary schools. There are now such courses in all the important Faculties, a weekly lecture being given throughout the academic year. All students or masters who wish it may attend, and *agrégation* candidates must attend. No one who has followed the lectures of M. Durckheim at the Musée Pédagogique in Paris is likely to deny the immense service that such an institution can render in the hands of a master. The students themselves, who, resenting the innovation, came to mock at the beginning of the session, remained eagerly to take notes of a course which, whether it dealt with the history of the Secondary Schools of France, or with the retention of Latin, was always luminous and stimulating. Our excuse for mentioning this instance is to show that hostility to the scientific

treatment of education, being based on prejudice and ignorance, is bound to yield to interest, if the right man teaches. Certainly no students could have been more hostile than M. Durckheim's hearers when he started, or more appreciative when he closed.

Apart from this yearly course of lectures on subjects likely to be useful to schoolmasters, which only the highest grade of teachers, the *agrégés*, need follow, and the training to be given by the reconstituted École Normale to the best of these *agrégés*, there is as yet nothing done in France to secure the training, even theoretical, of the mass of her masters, the *licenciés*, who teach in the colleges and fill many chairs in the less important lycées. It is true that they are likely to be good teachers of their subject, since not only are they all more or less specialists, qualified by their degree to teach certain things, and these only, but they are immensely helped by the carefully-drawn-up *programmes*, written for the guidance of teachers by an educational council of experts. Nothing could be better done than this branch of official control: the syllabus is outlined, and special advice offered as to the way in which certain lessons should be given, while a too minute prescription of method is avoided. Methods, too, can be discussed in the *réunions de professeurs*, or "masters' meetings," and many useful hints are given by the inspectors, who are always chosen from the ranks of successful teachers, and who only inspect in their special subject. And we must not forget that teaching has so long been good all round in France that there has come to be a traditional (and highly felicitous) method of teaching every branch of knowledge, just as in this country we have elaborated a system for teaching the classics, which has proved its value, and the tradition of which saves the young classical master from floundering too badly. All this goes far to compensate for the lack of professional training, but France herself now admits that what is good without it would be better with it.

And always in the men she selects by competitive examination—the *agrégés*, the *certifiés* for teaching modern languages, and the *certifiés* for teaching the elementary classes—she has insisted on some proof of professional knowledge and skill. The Oral test for the *agrégation* includes lessons and practical exhibitions of teaching ability (*e.g.* "the candidate must offer all the remarks upon each text that explanation in class would call for"), and in the examination for the modern-language certificate we find a French composition on some subject connected with the "special pedagogy of modern languages." All this must make for reflection on method

and self-information,[1] though, curiously enough, it is only from the candidate for teaching in the elementary classes that real knowledge of pedagogy is demanded. For this certificate not only are model oral lessons on all the subjects required, but there is an oral examination on the elementary principles of pedagogy, which, we learn, includes questions on the theory of education, as well as on methods of teaching, upon the interpretation of a syllabus and the government of a class. Evidently in France, as in England, it has been the fashion to think that the need of trained teaching is confined to the lower stages of education.

But better days have already dawned. The University of Paris now sends its scholars who are reading for the *agrégation* into the lycées for a few weeks during the first year, and makes similar arrangements for any other prospective teachers who desire it. This sojourn in the lycées follows after attendance at lectures on education, and has produced good results. In the words of M. Marion: "Ces jeunes gens, qui précisément ont suivi auparavant nos conférences, l'œil ouvert sur toutes les questions de pédagogie pratique, sont particulièrement préparés à comprendre ce qu'ils voient, à profiter des exemples, à interpréter les conseils. Et, au retour, l'esprit plein des nécessités et des difficultés réelles, ils s'entretiennent de nouveau, cette fois avec leurs professeurs particuliers, dans leurs conférences respectives, de toute la pratique de leur métier, spécialement des méthodes propres de l'enseignment auquel ils se destinent. Les données précises qu'ils rapportent, les comptes rendus écrits qu'on leur demande servent de base à des entretiens, qui font plus pour leur apprentissage que des années de tâtonnements dans des voies douteuses, au préjudice de leurs élèves."[2] Here M. Marion touched on the vital point, hitherto neglected in France—the necessity for practical experience inside the school, concurrently with theory. Such experience is in its first infancy in France and England. Let us now turn to Germany, where we shall find it already a vigorous child.

In Germany.—In Germany secondary schoolmasters (*Oberlehrer*) are compelled to seek the certificates of the different States in order to get permission to teach in any Government school, or municipal or private school under State recognition. This principle involves the establishment in every German State, and each of the provinces of Prussia, of

[1] The university professors are asked by the State to lecture on the pedagogic aspect of their subject and give informal hints to students about their future work.

[2] H. Marion, *L'Éducation dans l'Université* (Armand Colin), p. 94.

an examination committee (*Prüfungs-Kommission*), consisting partly of professors and partly of State officials. The candidate for teaching must present himself before the Commission with certificates to the following effect:

1. That he has been educated in a first-grade school and left it with credit.

2. That he has spent *at least three* years in study at one or more of the German Universities. (In point of fact, he generally spends four or five.)

3. That his studies have comprised (*a*) some special branch of scholarship in which he desires to be certified as competent to give the highest instruction, and one or two branches *allied* to this (*e.g.* a master may be required to take classics up to the top forms, and French up to *Tertia* only); (*b*) religion, *philosophy*, *pedagogy*, and the history, geography, and literature of Germany. (In philosophy the candidate is expected to show acquaintance with the elements of ethics and psychology, and in pedagogy to have followed a course of lectures, especially on its philosophical and historical aspects.)

If the certificates are satisfactory, the candidate is admitted to the Staats-examen, partly oral, partly written, conducted by the Commission or by professors they may nominate; if he passes it successfully, the student becomes a *Schulamts Kandidat* and is admitted to a course of training.

Until comparatively recently, the only legal requirement for training in Prussia was that the *Kandidat* should spend a trial year, or *Probejahr*, in some approved higher school. This year was meant to give him familiarity with his future duties, and the opportunity of proving that he had the necessary teaching ability. Candidates were expected to teach six or eight hours a week, under the supervision of the headmaster or *Oberlehrer*, and were obliged to visit classes taught by regular teachers, to attend examinations and teachers' meetings, and to participate in the supervision and general life of the school. Practically, however, the *Probejahr* has proved inadequate as a training, and its chief utility has been the opportunity it gave of debarring failures from continuing in the profession, by an adverse report at the end of the trial year. In 1890, therefore, Prussia followed the example of Hesse in compelling all candidates to take a *Seminarjahr*, or year of real training in a properly organised *Seminar*, or training-centre, in addition to and before the *Probejahr*. The object of the *Seminarjahr* is to give them a clear knowledge of the principles of teaching and education, *concurrently with* practice in a higher school. The question arose whether this work of training should be entrusted to

the university or the school. Prussia held that training by experienced secondary-school teachers was likely to be better than any that could be given by professors of a university, with their tendency to elaborate theory, and claimed that the *Kandidat* had already followed lectures in pedagogy, and was chiefly in need of practical guidance. She therefore determined to disregard the claims of the universities to share in training, and extended the method she had previously adopted by the institution of twelve *Royal Pedagogic Seminaries* in the principal towns of the kingdom. Each of these seminaries is under the immediate direction of its provincial school-board, and consists of a director, with from five to ten students, who practise in one or more secondary schools in the neighbourhood; in several cases the director is also a headmaster. By the ministerial rescript of 1890, about forty headmasters were invited to establish small *Seminars* in their schools, to be known as *Gymnasial Seminaries*, and they were relieved of about one-fourth of their previous duties in order that they might have time for their new work. Also, together with any assistants who helped him, such a headmaster was to receive proper remuneration for executing these additional duties. The official regulations make the headmaster and his staff responsible for the following:

(1) A complete course of study and reading, with informal lectures and discussions on pedagogic principles in their application to secondary schools, particularly dealing with those branches in which the candidates are specially qualified to teach. School administration and school hygiene not to be lost sight of. Importance to be attached to recent pedagogic literature.

(2) Associated with this study there must be systematic practice in teaching, going from the bottom of the school to the top, with weekly discussions presided over by the Director.

(3) The candidates are to have the same status as the permanent staff, and to attend its weekly meeting, to join in all assemblies and other school functions, games, festivals, school tours, etc.

(4) Towards the close of the year, the candidates are to write essays on subjects assigned by the Director, who, finally, sends to the Ministry a full report on the year's work. Thereupon the Ministry will appoint each candidate either to the same, or to some other, school for a *Probejahr*, or refuse to give him further training, as a man unfitted for the profession.

The latest, and most excellent, book on the subject of the Gymnasial-Seminar is the recent publication, *Das pädagogische Seminar*, by Dr. Karl Neff, of Munich (Oscar Beck, 1908). It is the result of eleven years' experience, since the Bavarian Government imitated the Prussian system in 1897. From it we can gather something of the actual working of the system, in its particular application to the training in each subject. For such detail, of remarkable interest, we must send the reader to Dr. Neff's book, and content ourselves here with a brief picture of how the scheme works practically. In each Gymnasium, selected in Bavaria as suitable for a Seminar, not more than six candidates are put under the direction of the headmaster and a specially qualified assistant, called the *Seminarlehrer*, who can at need replace the headmaster in his control, and whose particular duty is to act as familiar guide and counsellor to the pupils under training. These pupils, limited to six in number, have a special room (*Seminarzimmer*), well furnished with the most recent pedagogical literature, in which they can read and receive informal instruction, or hold discussions on what they have seen in the class-room, without fear of interruption. In this room the more theoretical part of their training is received. The professional instruction, on the other hand, is obtained by attending classes in the school, beginning with the top classes, but afterwards embracing lessons all through the school. The classes selected are, naturally, confined to those which deal with the subjects offered by the candidates, just as the school chosen as a Seminar for classical men is the *Gymnasium*, for modern-language teachers the *Realgymnasium*, etc. As a rule, only twelve hours a week are spent in attending classes, the rest of the time being given to study with the Director or Seminarlehrer. Great importance is attached to the weekly conference, to which all masters are invited, and which deals with not only the methods of teaching each subject, but with the principles of education and instruction, and includes treatment of the main educational movements and their representatives. The candidates are invited to submit observations on the classes they have attended, and the points raised are talked over together. Besides these weekly conferences, the student has daily opportunity for more informal discussion with the teacher. Practice in teaching by the candidate begins early in the yearly course. He is allowed to choose his own subject for the trial-lesson (*Probelektion*), is expected to prepare it carefully beforehand, and to submit it to the teacher for approval. He begins to teach in the Seminarlehrer's own class, in which he is most at

home, but goes on to teach in other masters classes. The other candidates and the teacher are present, but they do not interrupt. They listen, and while listening *write*, in order that their presence may disturb the beginner as little as possible, and that he may feel that he is really taking a form. After the trial-lesson is over, it is discussed freely in the Seminarzimmer, and the teacher points out where it could have been improved. About twelve trial-lessons in all are given by each candidate. In the second half of the school-year, the candidate is promoted to teaching *alone*, being introduced by the form-master, who threatens dire penalties if any advantage is taken by the boys. Since the duration of this freer teaching is officially undefined, the candidate can be entrusted with a definite piece of work, such as a classical author, to read with a form. In the case of a master's falling ill, he is now allowed to replace him, and he has been for some time increasingly initiated into the mysteries of correcting and marking, which may, in part, be put into his hands. Throughout the year, he has joined in the school festivals and general life, and been brought into intimate contact with teachers and boys alike. He has received theoretical training, but theory has been subordinated to practice. It now remains for him to write a more important thesis on some matter connected with his year's study, approved of by his teachers, and if the headmaster sends a testimonial to the effect that he is "very good," "good," or "satisfactory," a corresponding diploma is awarded by the State.

Such, in brief, is the working of the *Gymnasial-Seminar*. If it errs, it errs in the right direction of preferring practical utility to elaborate theory. At the same time, it is probable that the system of Saxe-Weimar is founded on a sounder principle than is that of Prussia. In this duchy the candidates are compelled to spend their *Seminarjahr* at Jena, where the University has long given importance to pedagogic study, under the direction of Prof. Rein, and where, at the same time, there is a Gymnasial-Seminar, on the Prussian model. This combination has proved very successful, and is probably the ideal solution. The University is able to give lectures on general pedagogy, treated more scientifically and critically than is possible for a busy headmaster and his staff, who must necessarily have made up their minds on the main issues. The School is able to give practical initiation and concrete knowledge of how a subject can be successfully taught, and, most of all, that personal intercourse with, and interest in, *boys*, which at once stimulates scientific investigation and

corrects the tendency to theorise. Fortunately for us, it is towards this happy combination that English training is now tending.[1]

In England.—During the last fifteen years special provision has been made by the Universities for training secondary teachers, and there are now departments, recognised by the Board of Education, to be found at Oxford, Cambridge, London, Manchester, Birmingham, Liverpool, Leeds, Sheffield, the three Welsh University Colleges, and Stonyhurst. Some issue post-graduate diplomas, others allow Education to count, wholly or partially, as a qualifying subject for degrees. That such a recognition of Education, as, in itself, a science and art complete enough as a mental training to be taken as a separate school, admitting to a degree equally with Classics or Mathematics, was necessary not long ago, is a point that may be, perhaps, conceded. It was a position stoutly maintained by the late Prof. Withers, and certainly the ignorance and contempt displayed by the public and the profession alike towards the subject, made any course that tended to emphasise its importance, for the moment, justifiable. But it is impossible to believe that, for the schoolmaster, at any rate, such recognition is anything but ill-advised. What the schoolmaster, more than any other man, needs the University to give him, is a wide, general culture and a high level of academic equipment in one or two branches of knowledge. He will become enough of a specialist (scientific or amateur) in education when once he has adopted his profession. While there would be no real drawback, but probably great advantage, in the institution by the Universities of a series of weekly lectures on educational subjects, treated philosophically, which prospective teachers might be expected, or compelled, to attend in the last year of their undergraduate course—just as we have seen that German candidates and French would-be *agrégés* are obliged to attend pedagogic lectures—yet the almost unanimous verdict of Assistant-masters themselves is (we think rightly) in favour of making Education a post-graduate study. University enterprise might, perhaps, recognise the subject as a new Honours-school, but only on condition that it is not taken as qualifying for the B.A. degree. Conceivably a new degree might be given, like the B.C.L. at Oxford; for such a degree to be of any

[1] For what is said above upon training in France and Germany we are specially indebted to memoranda by Mr. Ward on France, and Dr. Findlay on Germany, to be found in vol. v. pp. 94–127 of the 1895 Secondary Education Commission. Reference should be made also to Russell's *German Higher Schools* (Longmans), ch. xviii.

value, the test of practical efficiency must be as severe as, if not severer than, the test of theoretical knowledge.

We may presume, then, that in this country it will be usual for the future schoolmaster to begin his professional training after taking his degree. He can either qualify at his own University or migrate to another, or, under the new regulations of the Board, to which we shall refer below, he can go, as in Germany, to a Secondary School which has a department recognised as a training college. If he is wise he will either choose the last alternative, or will select a University, whether his own or not, which lays special stress on practical work in schools, and which has, for a staff of education-experts, men who have had wide and successful secondary-school experience, and who command the unqualified respect of schoolmasters as a body. Unfortunately, all training-centres cannot as yet claim to fulfil these conditions; until they do, training can never become a reality. Under the skilful guidance, and above all, the financial help, of the Board, both requirements are likely to be universally met before long. We have come to see that to pay a few choir-boys threepence an hour as victims, and call them a practising-school, is no training in either teaching or discipline, but only in shamming. And it is obvious that a training-centre will only get a staff with the very high qualifications required if it offers sufficiently good pay to get the right men to join. It seems probable that the ultimate solution, here as in Germany, will be found in uniting University teaching with the school as the chief centre of professional training. It is not enough to send men into the schools for a few weeks at the beginning or end of term, however wisely the headmaster may direct, and however assiduously the training-tutor may come and inspect. The important thing is that a student should live in continuous and close contact with the life of a school, guided by practical teachers, entrusted gradually with more and more teaching, under less and less artificial conditions, while all the time, concurrently, neither before nor after, he is receiving instruction in the principles which underlie the practice, in the science as opposed to the art, from men who are at once skilled in the philosophical and psychological aspects of this science, and former, or actual, brilliant exponents of this art. It should be possible for every University to follow the lead of Manchester, and have on its staff of lecturers in Education well known and widely respected heads of schools. By the inclusion of such lecturers, educational theory is brought into contact with actuality, while by the possibility of hearing specialists in Hygiene, the History and Administration of

Education, and the Science of Education, the student is saved from thinking his profession an art of which, by force of imitation, he can acquire the knack, without studying its underlying principles. It is probable that no school staff will ever make a training-centre sufficiently strong on the theoretical side; it is also probable that no University will ever become a training-centre sufficiently in touch with schools as to be satisfactory on the practical side. The school should be made the scene of practical receptivity and activity during a year's course: during the same year, dividing the student's time with the school, the University should be the chief sphere of theoretical instruction. Both, it will probably be found in time, are equally important, and mutually dependent, factors in the making of the schoolmaster.

Meanwhile, it is satisfactory to observe the forward policy of the Board of Education in this as in so many matters. By its recent Regulations (1908) it promises to recognise, under suitable conditions, departments of a few specially organised Secondary Schools as Training Colleges, confining its grants, however, to those schools which can train a minimum of ten students. (Contrast in this Bavaria, which considers six the maximum.) It makes training post-graduate, thereby insisting on some degree of general academic attainment as preliminary. Best of all, it makes it an indispensable condition of *recognition* or grant, that Colleges or Departments should have access, under proper conditions, to Secondary Schools which are thoroughly suitable for demonstration and practice. "They (the Board) desire to make it quite clear that, however good the lectures given on the theory and history of education may be, they will attach the first importance to arrangements which will enable every student to see good teaching at close quarters, and to practise teaching under skilled criticism, and for periods sufficiently long to admit of the acquisition of some real facility in instructing and handling classes, and in drawing up secondary-school time-tables and curricula." It is, therefore, laid down that no less than two-thirds of the teaching practice must be in secondary schools, and that at least sixty school days must be spent in contact with class work, under proper supervision. Students, too, must specialise in one branch of the curriculum, and for Modern Languages residence abroad is insisted on. Finally, half the staff, at least, and the head of the training-centre must be experienced in secondary-school work, while in a school-centre there must be a special master for the students, and, if their number reaches ten, he must devote his

time mainly to them. Grants are made, where the centre has not less than ten students, and when it fulfils other conditions, to the amount of £100 for every group of five, on the understanding that the grant shall not exceed half the total sum paid in salaries to the teacher, or teachers, engaged in training. Such regulations as these, and such financial help, cannot fail to have an excellent effect on training in the future.

We have dealt at length upon this question of training, on the Continent and at home, because only after a somewhat detailed inquiry is it possible to realise how difficult, and how vital, a question it is. The Assistant-masters' Association, which is hardly a body of faddists, is in full sympathy with the kind of training, practical and thorough, which we may expect the new Government regulations to make normal in this country. If, as we expect, the training we aim at giving our schoolmasters proves useful to them, and still more to their pupils, we may perhaps in time go on to consider whether it would not prove equally advantageous to teachers in our Universities. The question has come to the front in Germany, where there is a strong movement in favour of giving practical and theoretical training to candidates for University teaching. In France, the strength of teaching at the Faculties is admittedly attributable in great measure to the fact that a large proportion of professors and lecturers have taught in schools, and learnt how necessary are clear exposition and an interesting manner. Whatever the needs of the Continent for developing this branch of training, no one who contrasts the average lecture at Paris or Berlin with the average lecture at Oxford and Cambridge will deny that, whether by training or another method, our English University teachers must somehow learn their business.

Such, then, are the possibilities in the way of training and registering our schoolmasters. Happily, owing to the action of the Board of Education, both measures have now come within the sphere of practical politics, whatever the precise form in which they are likely to become ultimately effective may prove to be. Nor is it desirable in this, or in most other kinds of educational reform, to expect, or even aim at, finality. Only practice can test the utility of each detail and suggest the remedy for defects, and in the case of a growing science, the subject-matter of which is essentially variable, there must be constant readjustment in order to ensure success. The great thing, after all, is to obtain the recognition of the necessary foundations upon which a lasting system can be raised, and, for making teaching a profession, we have

seen that a register of efficient masters is the first requisite. When once we have a list of all the teachers qualified for work in secondary schools, it is inevitable that any government with the pretension to guide education must make membership of such a list necessary for any appointment in a higher school under its control, whether it be a public school or a private academy under inspection. Again, the register will of itself make men realise that they belong to a common profession, closed to charlatans, whose duty and right it will be to speak with authority on matters that concern them. The fact that it will, perhaps, contain a small minority of headmasters and university teachers, and an increasing number of highly qualified men teaching in elementary schools, will help it to pronounce with greater weight on more general matters, and will not prevent Assistant-masters, or any other section, from combining about objects that affect themselves alone. It will not supersede particular associations, but will make members of different associations feel that they are, after all, men of like credentials, engaged in a common object, though in different capacities, and should thus do much to harmonise national education in all its branches, by making personal qualification, rather than sphere of activity, the title to distinction. Incidentally, as we shall proceed to show, it will logically involve reforms of the very greatest importance.

We have seen that France and Germany have long possessed a very real system of registration, by excluding from service in State-schools all except those who have passed certain definite tests, whether university or professional. They have thereby created a body of teachers of guaranteed capacity and highly specialised qualifications. This they have done in order to secure the country good instruction and to safeguard the interests of the parent. But they have not stopped at this, but have gone on to take measures that should ensure fair treatment and protection to the teacher. It was quite open to them, as to us, to argue that, when once the State had guaranteed teaching as a profession, with exclusive claim to practise in a certain sphere, and sundry privileges, such as the sole right to recover fees by law, she had done enough, and that the teacher, like the doctor or the lawyer, must take his chance as to the size of fees and as to getting clients. This would have been a possible position, though based upon an unfair analogy, since the medical and legal professions draw up their own rules and are really self-governing corporations, whereas the State claims the paramount right to regulate and govern teaching. Again, the

schoolmaster is *de facto* a public servant, with a fixed income, except in the case of private enterprise, and in an official relationship with a public body that is very different from the individual connection between a doctor and his patient. France and Germany therefore made their teachers Civil Servants, fixing their salaries, arranging their appointments, securing their tenure, and giving them pensions. While the French *agrégation* alone is a competitive examination, success in which secures immediate appointment to a vacancy, and while there is from time to time, in both countries, a surplus of qualified men to whom the State cannot guarantee immediate employment, yet both nations afford a permanent and secure career to those who have entered the teaching profession, and are thereby able to command an unfailing supply of the best intellect in the market. The year of probation sufficiently protects Germany at least from being saddled with many really incompetent, but irremovable, masters, and a sufficient stimulus to ambition and good work is provided by the possibility of moving on to schools of greater importance or situated in a more attractive town.

We will reserve, for the moment, the question as to whether Assistant-masters in England should, or should not, become Civil Servants, in the full sense of the word, contenting ourselves with pointing out that teachers in secondary schools under a local authority, like their elementary colleagues, are already, in a restricted form, on their way to recognition as a branch of the public service. We will rather take, in order, the various points that vitally affect the Assistant-master's position in this country, giving, first, the facts of the case as they are to-day, and, secondly, the reforms, whether imperative or ultimately desirable, that such a survey suggests. Let us begin with the question of Appointment.

Tenure: Appointment.—With recent exceptions in the case of secondary schools under local authorities, where the Education Committee appoints, Assistant-masters in England are appointed directly by the Headmaster. The way in which a vacancy is filled varies. It is probable that a considerable number of appointments in the great public schools are made as the result of a chance meeting on the golf links, if it be allowable to argue from the cases that have come under the writers' notice. Almost always the vacancies in the most important schools are filled by private arrangement, the Headmaster dropping a hint at the Universities that a man will be required, or bringing back some old pupil, or being informed by a colleague that "So-and-so" is the very man he wants. Generally, he has a list of would-be assistants,

and it is possible that he occasionally consults it. Rarely, he sends word to an agent, who puts him into communication with candidates for the post. Unfortunately for the successful candidate, the agent selected is nearly always the most expensive for the Assistant, though he charges nothing to the Headmaster. He is in London, and has a connection, and is very business-like, and it is less trouble to keep on with him than to employ an agency, like those at the Universities or the Joint Agency, which charges only a small fee to the Assistant, being run with no view to profit. The lesser-known schools make general use of the agencies, as a rule of several, so that the appointed master often is in doubt which to pay. So carelessly do the Olympians deal with smaller men! And only a few local authorities have learnt to advertise their posts in the public press.

When the man is once appointed, he usually makes no legal agreement unless he insists on so doing, and such insistence may create a bad impression. There is some vague talk of probation, which will mean a term or three years, according to the convenience, or judgment, of the Headmaster. As a rule, nothing is business-like or definite on either side, and the governors do not always even hear that a change has taken place. All this, of course, is accounted for by the fact that until the Endowed Schools (Masters) Act of 1908, to which we shall refer below, the Assistant-master was legally the domestic servant of the Headmaster, to be appointed and dismissed by him at pleasure.

What should be done to remedy all this? Several things suggest themselves at once. If agencies are used, then those alone should be selected which were founded for the benefit of the profession and charge a nominal fee. It is a scandal that a poor man should be compelled to pay 10 per cent. commission for securing a temporary post, and 5 per cent. on the first year's income for a more permanent post, while the school pays nothing. But it would be far better if, as the Assistant-masters' Association suggests, all schools supported by endowments or public money would advertise their vacancies in the public press, preferably in a journal which appears weekly, and is devoted to Secondary Education. No elementary teacher uses an agency; the vacancies in his comparatively well-organised branch of the profession are always advertised in the local or professional press.

Next, the appointment of Assistant-masters to posts on the staffs of schools should be made by the governing bodies on the recommendation of the Headmasters. By the recent Act, *all* masters, head and assistant alike, in Endowed Schools,

by whomsoever appointed, are made servants of the governors, and no distinction is made between a probationary and a permanent appointment. It is therefore presumable that some care will be taken in the future to draw up a careful agreement, laying stress on conditions of service and notice, which both contracting parties shall sign. But although, with obvious justice, Assistant-masters cease to be the personal servants of their chiefs, and are now placed, together with their chiefs, on an equal and legal footing as servants of the governing body, it is probable that all who really consider the interests of education will be anxious that the selection of Assistants shall lie with the Headmaster, subject to the approval of his governors. It is acting on an entirely false precedent for an Education Committee, or Body of Governors, to appoint an Assistant independently of the Headmaster. The two men are far more likely to work harmoniously together if the one has selected the other, as the type most likely to benefit the school, the needs of which he is best able to estimate. And the best candidate has a much better chance of being appointed if the choice is left with a man of presumably wide professional experience, rather than with a heterogeneous collection of experts, cranks, and amateurs. A Body of Governors or an Education Committee would make a proper first court of appeal in case of dismissal: it makes an exceedingly improper council for selection. We make this protest because it is becoming the practice of local authorities to appoint both head and assistants in the new Secondary Schools, on the analogy of the custom prevalent in primary education. We believe that this custom has been a serious handicap on primary schools, and were better abolished; we are quite sure that, if general, it would be fatal to evolving, or maintaining, the true spirit of English Secondary Education, in which the Headmaster has hitherto been something more than an administrative official. The more legitimate liberty we can leave all round, to boy, assistant, head, and school alike, providing that we secure efficiency, the better will education fare. As it is, a Headmaster generally has to work with a staff more than half of which is a legacy from his predecessors. It were mischievous to refuse him the choice of the remainder.

Dismissal.—Let us now consider the other side of the same problem—dismissal. The whole question has been made sufficiently public during the last few years by what is known as the Richmond case. Briefly, the facts are these. The Headmaster appointed to the Richmond Grammar School, during the summer holidays of 1906, wrote to the staff, a week

before the beginning of the Autumn Term, to say that he intended to begin work "with an entire change of staff." He based his action on the following clause in the scheme of the Charity Commissioners, under which the school was carried on: "The Headmaster shall appoint, and may at pleasure dismiss, all Assistant-masters in the school."

The case was taken up by the Assistant-masters' Association, since it was only a more flagrant instance of the attitude shown by several Headmasters during the last ten years. It was heard before Mr. Justice Lawrance and a special jury on July 17 and 18, 1907, one of the Assistant-masters suing the governors for a term's salary as damages for wrongful dismissal. The jury found that the custom of a term's notice was proved, and awarded damages to the plaintiff. Thereupon, however, the judge ruled that there was no case against the governors, since the Endowed Schools Act of 1869 was held to show that Assistant-masters are not the servants of the governing body. Judgment was therefore entered for the defendants, with costs, a stay of execution being granted in view of an appeal. The case was again heard in the Court of Appeal, on November 5 and 6, but the appeal was dismissed with costs, it being held as proved that under the Public Schools Act of 1868, and the Endowed Schools Act of 1869, an Assistant-master in most schools was not the servant of the governors, and that he could be dismissed at a moment's notice without cause assigned. Fortunately, both Headmasters and Assistant-masters agreed that such a position was intolerable, and would keep all self-respecting men out of the profession. Their combined efforts resulted in the passing of the Endowed Schools (Masters) Act, dated August 1, 1908, which makes all masters, head and assistant alike, the servants of the governing body, and enacts that, "subject to any special provisions as to notice contained in any scheme, and any special agreement as to notice, no dismissal shall take effect except at the end of a school term, and except after at least two months' notice of dismissal has been given by, or on behalf of, the governors." It allows, however, any master to be dismissed without notice for misconduct, or any other good and urgent cause.

This is the first great instalment towards securing a proper charter of Assistant-masters' rights. That any legislation should have been arrived at, is directly due to the Assistant-masters' Association, which by raising a guarantee fund of £900 made a test case of the Richmond scandal, and, by exposing the insecurity of an assistant's tenure, made some

remedy imperative. At the same time, the Act can only be regarded as a beginning. It does not apply to the Public Schools Act of 1868, or to municipal and other unendowed schools, and it allows special provisions in particular schemes. It has omitted the words "assigned at the time of dismissal" from the end of the paragraph dealing with summary dismissal for misconduct. It does not secure the assistant the right to a personal hearing before the governors, although, as has been pointed out, a railway porter must be heard in his own defence by his directors. Lastly, it does not recognise the national aspect of the Assistant-master's position, though we are inclined to think that this is the most important of all, by giving him the right of appeal to the Board of Education, which should have power to make such order as it deems advisable. Without these necessary amendments, the Act cannot be considered as in any sense adequate. For with the average governing body, as at present constituted, the verdict of the Headmaster would generally be considered final, and his opinion that it was in the interests of the school that an assistant should be dismissed would be ratified officially, without any impartial investigation. And yet, in taking a step which may easily ruin a man's life, the most minute inquiry cannot be held superfluous. The very least that can be done, is to allow him to make his defence against a charge that should be clearly specified, and, since he is doing work of peculiarly national importance, it is obvious that the central authority should make itself a court of appeal.[1] In any properly organised school, or system, after a suitable period of probation, all dismissals would be extremely rare, and their rarity would so emphasise their importance as to make full investigation and right of appeal of the very first necessity. Nothing short of these reforms will give real security to the assistant, will afford him any guarantee against being made the victim of individual dislike on the part of an incompatible chief, will ensure him a career which only personal incompetence can check or terminate. A perfectly adequate control can be exercised over a staff by any Headmaster who has the right to appoint, subject to the approval of his governors (and possibly, in time to come, of the central authority), the initiative in recommending dismissal, and the power of temporarily suspending an assistant for any adequate cause, to be judged of by himself, providing that he

[1] By the Education (Scotland) Act, 1908, the Scottish Education Department has now the power to hear such appeals, and, after holding an inquiry, to compel the School Board to reinstate or compensate a teacher who has been unfairly dismissed.

instantly notifies the governing body of such suspension, and that the master concerned is given the right of appearing before them in his own defence. No one can say that such an arrangement would leave the Headmaster weak-handed and the Assistant-master over-secure. In France and Germany the assistant is practically independent of the goodwill of his chief, and responsible only to the State. It has not been found that such a condition of things makes for slackness or inefficiency. No better guarantees, indeed, can be found for securing good service and whole-hearted devotion than just payment, a share in responsibility, and secure tenure. Men are what you make them, and the most certain way to get bad work is to put a staff, without safeguards, at the mercy of a chief who may be, fortunately generally is, a man of heart and honour, but may also be a narrow-minded bully. And, after all, there is a certain way of testing masters before giving them a permanent standing in the profession, and that a way which has the merit of strong support from Assistant- and Headmasters alike—probation.

Probation.—It will be noticed that the recent Act makes mention of "special agreement as to notice" which may affect ordinary conditions of tenure. This can only, in reason, apply to a period of probation, necessary to safeguard the interests of the school. Such a probationary period is of clear advantage, at any rate in the case of the man who has just joined the profession, since it prevents teaching being permanently encumbered with any master who is likely to be lastingly incompetent, and acts really in the interest of such a man by forcing him to choose another calling before it is too late. We have seen that there are foreign analogies to it in the German system of the *Probejahr*, and the French distinction between the *Professeur chargé de cours* and the *Professeur titulaire*. And we have submitted that the best provision against incompetence is to train a man professionally, and then make his first year's work strictly probationary. The question now arises, whether this probationary period should hold good for a master's first school only, or for every school in which he may serve during his career. In the present chaotic state of secondary education, in which each school is, more or less, a law unto itself, the answer would doubtless be in favour of the second arrangement. It can be argued, with much plausibility, that what is fish to one school or Headmaster would be fowl to another; that a man may have done excellent work in a preparatory school or grammar school, and yet prove unsuitable for a public school; that it is dangerous to place upon the permanent

staff any master who has not proved his fitness. There is much truth in this, and yet we have not heard of any Headmaster being appointed upon probation, although Headmasters frequently change from one type of school to another. Again, if a man meets with a probationary period as an initial fence to leap, when he "moves on" to another school, he is perhaps likely to prefer to run no risks and remain where he is. Change, however, is in many cases indispensable to the individual and advantageous to the school, since not only may a man find a certain school uncongenial, but, for reasons of health or facility for research, may obviously, apart from the question of promotion, need a transfer. Again, from the standpoint of the school, nothing is so likely to prevent things getting into a groove as a certain amount of change in the teaching staff. At the present time, however, not only does the ambitious or conscientious man, who feels that he could do better work elsewhere, lose heavily in pocket by changing school, since he is placed, whatever his length of service in the profession, at the bottom of the salary-scale by his new employers (*e.g.* a man may leave at the age of thirty-five a small school where he is receiving £180 resident, to join the staff of a big public school, as being a better place to "grow old in," although he drops to £150 non-resident), but he is liable to dismissal from his new position, after a year or two's service, on the ground that it was not thought expedient to put him on the permanent staff. To keep such a sword of Damocles hanging over the head of an experienced man is surely unjustifiable: the obvious alternative is not to offer work to any one who is not, by his qualifications, practically certain to succeed. If the master finds that he dislikes the place, then for his own comfort's sake he will move on, and, when once our schools are organised, will find neither difficulty nor discredit in so doing. Abroad, the abler men are always being promoted, until the ablest attain to a chair in a University. The career is open to talents. The average men, until they marry and choose to settle down in a town, often demand a change for the sake of variety of experience, although it involves no financial gain.

It would therefore seem advisable to limit the probationary period to the first year's work of the beginner, and this principle should be clearly laid down in all schemes passed by the Board. An exception to the limitation might, perhaps, be made to meet the case of men who are really changing to a school of a type outside their previous experience, and who are thereby willing to run the risk of finding themselves unsuitable in a quite different sphere. In such cases there

might be a term's probation fixed as the condition of appointment. Whatever the period, the important thing is that it should be universal, definitely stated in all schemes, and of no longer than a year's duration. If a man's capacity cannot be tested in a year, then the Headmaster who thinks so, should resign in favour of a less procrastinating judge. At the end of his first year's probation, every master should be allowed to feel himself a permanent member, not only of the staff of a particular school, but of the teaching profession. His being placed on the register will be a sufficient guarantee of fitness.

Promotion.—At present, promotion, in the sense of moving on to another school, presumably of greater importance or able ultimately to pay a better salary, is entirely a matter of private enterprise and private arrangement. An Assistant-master who desires such promotion generally sends to a few agencies the request that he may be kept informed of vacancies of the desired type, or writes round to Headmasters, in the vague hope of being considered for the next appointment, or asks his friends in other schools to be on the look-out in his behalf. Now, although we have emphasised the importance of keeping to the English precedent of leaving the appointment to the Headmaster, subject to necessary approval, it seems certain that something in the way of more systematic promotion must be devised, if we are to give our schoolmasters a real career. We have seen that it is neither probable nor desirable that all masters, even with a satisfactory salary-scale, will stay on in the school to which they are originally appointed. The more adventurous, and the really able, will tend to change. And it is of supreme moment to the nation that it should secure the "right man for the right place," and not leave the adjustment so entirely to caprice as under the present régime. It will therefore become necessary for the State to organise a bureau that shall keep itself posted up, not only in the qualifications and wishes of each master, but in the needs of each school. Such a bureau would naturally be worked in connection with the Registration Council, and would enable the responsible committee, preferably composed of experts in Secondary Education, to exercise an ultimate control over, and frequent direction of, appointments made to schools. The advantages of such a central official agency, fully informed through its inspectors of the ability and record of each applicant and the needs of each school, are surely obvious. An Assistant-master would know that his claims would be brought forward in accordance with his merits, and a Headmaster would get a full list of

candidates of guaranteed suitability. But the choice among these candidates must, at all costs, be left to the Headmaster, if he is to be a chief and not a functionary. The governors and the State should automatically ratify the appointment of any man selected from such an official list. In this way only will each school get the man it needs, or deserves, and each master secure a career. It is important, too, that such a bureau should be restricted to the central authority, and not be left to different local authorities. Any analogy drawn from the custom in Elementary Education is false in this matter. What is customary in Elementary Education is neither necessarily right nor always applicable to Secondary. Secondary teachers are much fewer in number than Elementary, and engaged in educating as much for the nation as for the locality. It is therefore indispensable that all freedom of circulation should be maintained, and that the circulation should not be limited to a district, but extend throughout the country. We shall find the same necessity of national, rather than local, control of the *personnel* when we come to speak of pensions. Before leaving the question of promotion, we would suggest that the State should ratify no appointment as Headmaster unless the candidate were suitable and had served for a definite period as Assistant-master, while admitting that it would do much less harm by conceding even an arbitrary *congé d'élire* to the governing body in the election of a Headmaster than by interfering with a Headmaster's absolute freedom of choice of assistants from an official list. Preferably, however, the State should submit to the governors a list of the best applicants for a headmastership, and prevent any man being appointed who could not justify his place on such a list.

Pensions.—Possibly nothing is so badly needed, and nothing would do more to attract and keep able men in the teaching profession, than the institution of a really adequate and national pension scheme for masters.[1] At the present moment pension schemes are non-existent, except in the case of a few of the richer public schools or of schools supported by the funds of a wealthy corporation. And yet it is obvious that they should be universal, seeing that not only are they recognised as of primary necessity by the Crown services, and by local authorities who employ Elementary teachers, poor-law officers, and police officers, but even private organisations, such as railways, banks, and insurance and telegraph companies, which aim merely at profit, find it

[1] We are indebted, in what follows, to the suggestive pamphlet on the subject by Mr. G. F. Bridge, Chairman in 1901 of the Assistant-masters' Association.

expedient to provide superannuation schemes for their men. Secondary schoolmasters are not only public servants, but, as we have seen, collectively a body of very poor men, whose stipends make it an impossibility to make provision for old age, and whose work is of such a nature that retirement at a certain age is a question of public importance. In no capacity is a feeble old man so useless, or rather pernicious, as in the teaching profession, and yet this is the very profession which, as a rule, neither pays its members a wage with a margin for saving, nor makes provision for their superannuation. That something must be done is generally admitted, and the Assistant-masters' Association is attempting to convert this admission into action. It is therefore especially pertinent at the present time to consider what has been done, and what should be done, to remedy this grievance.

The Incorporated Association of Headmasters has produced what it calls a pension scheme, but what is really only an arrangement to get slightly reduced terms for schoolmasters from certain insurance offices. They have expressed their "confident expectation that Governing Bodies will contribute one-half or one-third of the premiums," but unfortunately this expectation has hitherto, except in a few cases, proved groundless. In a few great public schools schemes have been started, upon the principle of the governors and the assistants contributing an equal amount annually to the pension fund (usually £25 each), and the assistants having a claim, when they reach the age of compulsory retirement, to an annuity or a lump sum. If a contributor leaves the school before four years' service he gets his contributions back, plus compound interest; beyond ten years, he generally gets in addition a bonus from the governors' contribution proportioned to his length of service. But there are objections to such schemes, however relatively satisfactory they may be. First, the arrangements are very illiberal as compared with the treatment of servants by local authorities and private firms; secondly, they are either not retrospective, or harsh to old masters and newcomers of middle age, in expecting them to raise immediately a large sum or submit to excessive deductions from salary; thirdly, they are impossible for the exceptional man who ventures to marry on the salary of, say, £250 non-resident. For such a man, £25 a year is too serious a deduction to be thought of.

Such independent schemes, then, are as unsatisfactory as the chaotic independence which they reflect. The poorer schools, which need help most, get none, and the tendency for a man to change schools, which we have seen to be healthy

and natural within limits, is checked by a system which binds him to one school or exposes him to be constantly joining a new pension scheme, if his fresh spheres of activity happen to boast of one. And the same argument applies to pension schemes provided by local authorities. They would have the effect, disastrous to Secondary Education, of preventing men who are doing national work from moving freely about the country, and they would tend to emphasise an inequality of treatment which, we have submitted, is already sufficiently pernicious in the question of salaries. They would confirm the tendency of poorer authorities to engage cheap and inefficient labour, since the pension fund would be proportioned to the salary scale. Lastly, it is apparently illegal as yet for endowed schools to institute pension schemes: at least they can only venture by adopting the legal fiction that they are increasing the Assistant-masters' salaries.

Hence we are driven to the only adequate and workable (as it is the logically ideal) solution of making pensions a State concern. Mr. Bridge points out in his pamphlet on the subject that "there are several precedents for a State-aided pension scheme for a body of men, who, while they do not hold office directly under the Crown, are yet public servants in the sense that they are employed in public institutions which are controlled by public bodies, assisted by public money, and carried on for public objects." Such precedents are the superannuation schemes for employees of Boards of Guardians and for Elementary teachers. These schemes are based on the following principles:

(1) Compulsory contributions from all employees.

(2) Compulsory retirement at a certain fixed age.

(3) No return of contributions either to the contributor or his representatives.

(4) Support from public money.

It is therefore proper that, for schoolmasters too, a central fund should be formed, controlled by the Board of Education, and that governing bodies and masters should be compelled to contribute, while the Treasury should make an adequate grant. What the proportion exacted from the masters, from the governors, and from the State should be, is open to discussion. Certainly 5 per cent. of annual salary should be the very outside limit to demand from the master, unless, as in France, this 5 per cent. covers provision for widows and orphans. To be really national, such a scheme should embrace Headmasters and Assistant-masters alike. We must not forget that there are many very poor Headmasters.

To consider, briefly, what is done in France and Germany

alone (although pension schemes are common throughout Europe and the Colonies[1]), we find that, in France, Secondary teachers are entitled to a pension at sixty, after thirty years' service, equal to two-thirds of the average salary received during the last six years. Five per cent. of average salary is paid towards the pension—one-twelfth of the first year's salary, and the same amount each time the salary is increased. The pension must not exceed 6,000 fr. (£240). If incapacitated by infirmities, resulting from exercise of duties, a master is pensionable at fifty, after twenty years' service. Provision is made for widows and orphans. To take Baden, as typical of Germany, (it only varies in details from Prussia), Secondary teachers there receive, after ten years' service, a pension of 30 per cent. of salary, and the pension increases by 1½ per cent. for every year above ten. Thus, after forty years' service, a master draws 75 per cent. of salary as pension. In Prussia he contributes nothing. In Baden he contributes 3 per cent. every year, but this is towards the widows and unmarried children's pension fund, by which a widow receives 30 per cent. of her late husband's salary, and each unmarried child, up to a certain age, one-fifth of the widow's pension in addition, or two-fifths in the case of an orphan. English masters will, we fear, envy their Baden colleagues![2]

The institution of a pension scheme on national lines would rank with registration, as a long step taken in the direction of an organised system of English Secondary Education. It would emphasise the public aspect of the schoolmaster's work and recognise its public utility. Not only would it relieve all but the exceptionally favoured few among our assistants from the pressure of an ever-present anxiety, but, by paying them a pension for a period of service in any Secondary School or Schools, not in one particular institution, it would support our principle of freedom of circulation, and its logical corollary of increased central control over appointment, promotion, and dismissal. Finally, to be adequate, the pension should consist of one-fiftieth or one-sixtieth of the master's retiring salary, multiplied by the number of years of his service. No pension should be granted for under ten years' service, or claimed before sixty years of age, except on grounds of ill-health. For we need able men who choose teaching as their life-career, not the able birds of passage bred by the present chaos.

Representation.—At present, Assistant-masters are generally quite unrepresented in the government of their particular

[1] For statistics, see the *A. M. A.*, October 1908, pp. 83-4.

[2] These Baden figures are given by Prof. Sadler in his Essex Report.

schools, and very inadequately represented in the general control of the education in which they are, presumably, experts. As to the individual school to which they are attached, it is important that they should have a representative on the governing body, to champion their interests and be their spokesman. In the case of the ordinary Endowed School, it is impossible, of course, that an Assistant-master should be a governor. The Assistants should therefore have the legal right to delegate the voicing of their opinion to one of the governors whom they should themselves select, and with whom they should be in frequent touch. Most Headmasters of public schools admit the feasibility of this in principle, without taking very active steps to make it a reality. When the school is under a local authority, then it should always be represented, in common with all other schools under the same authority, by an Assistant-master *in propriâ personâ*, who has been chosen by his colleagues in the district to watch their interests, and impress their corporate attitude upon the Executive Committee. Elementary and Secondary Headmasters are, as a rule, already thus represented: it is high time that their Assistants should be given the same privilege. It is equally obvious that so large a body of educated men should be represented on the Registration Council and on the Consultative Committee, and Prof. Sadler's scheme would secure their representation on the Court of Appeal which the Board of Education should establish to consider cases of dismissal. Something in this direction is more likely to be achieved, now that the Federal Council has been established, consisting of three representatives from each of the following bodies: the Incorporated Associations of Headmasters, of Headmistresses, of Assistant-masters, of Assistant-mistresses, the Preparatory Schools Association, and the College of Preceptors. One of the professed objects of this excellent union of fellow workers is the proper representation of teachers: it may perhaps be trusted to secure, in achieving this object, the representation of assistants as well as chiefs.

Union.—But the only effective method for securing and maintaining the rights of Assistant-masters, whether they are ultimately placed under State control or not, is *union*. Incredible as it may seem, although the Assistant-masters' Association was founded in 1891, and has been conducted on lines of unimpeachable sobriety and moderation, it has only since last year numbered more than two thousand members, and of these only a third come from the important schools represented by the Headmasters' Conference. With some

distinguished exceptions, the public schools have held aloof from the only body purely representative of Assistant-masters in this country, or if public-school masters join, they sometimes do so, as one expressed it, "out of pity" for their poorer colleagues, as a sort of "charity." "Pity" and "charity" are ill-chosen words for men to use whose own position lacks all needful security, and whose own stipends are often even lower than those paid by the Grammar Schools they despise. The real obstacle to union is the exaggerated class-feeling which is ruining England, and of which public schools perpetuate the tradition both among masters and boys. But Assistant-masters can hardly expect the public or the Government to care much for their interests, if they are above looking after them on their own account, and a rudimentary sense of justice should prevent the majority allowing a minority of generally poorer men to fight their common battles and safeguard their common rights. It is of no use for Assistant-masters to attempt the reform of Secondary Education, or to try to convince the nation that they are equal to the task before them, if they do not begin by setting their own house in order, so that they may present a united front, and voice their opinions and protests with the authority of an organised profession. We have seen that real, legal organisation can only come with the register, but the register will be of little service to the masters themselves, however greatly it will benefit the schools and the public by its ultimate exclusions, unless they learn the easy lesson that union is the first condition of strength. The Assistant-teachers in Elementary Schools have a union so powerful that it cannot be neglected in fixing salary-scales or even settling questions of corporal punishment, since its magazine very effectively black-lists the districts where conditions of service are unsatisfactory, and its corporate spirit prevents such a black-list being disregarded. Until the Government has turned words into deeds, and made adequate salaries and proper tenure a reality, Secondary masters would, perhaps, do well to follow this example. Till they have a perfectly impartial court of appeal, they are still very much at the mercy of their chiefs. Things should be so managed that the school in which the Headmaster is a proved tyrant and a dishonest man (and there are such schools), or in which the pay is shamefully inadequate (such schools are not unknown), should be boycotted by all qualified men. The Board of Education would then effect an alteration if the school were under their control, or if it were a public school its governors would be driven to take action. The Assistant-masters

Association might usefully develop itself into a trade union, with contributions sufficient to enable its members to *strike*, if need be, for better pay. But this it cannot do, until all masters cease to play the independent gentleman, and aim at the reality of independence and the rights of common manhood, by joining together to fight, if they cannot gain justice by the more peaceful way of united protest. And even if they ultimately become the servants of the State, though striking would no longer be needful and perhaps not legal, a strong union of masters would still be necessary in order to safeguard professional interests. In France, the different associations of *professeurs* and *répétiteurs*, of which all masters are members, active or passive, have, time after time, wrung financial and other reforms from Parliament, in which their own representatives voice their claims. And this in spite of the fact that they are Civil Servants: for France is too logical to see any just impediment to Civilians having common interests, and the right to voice them collectively.

Conditions of Service: Hours of Work.—Another reform that must be kept in mind if we mean to have a body of masters worthy of the country, and energetic at once in the intellectual and in the pastoral spheres of their activity, is the reduction of hours of teaching. We have seen that we need men who will not only teach well, but who will identify themselves entirely with the corporate life of their school, interested in the games and the various societies, in touch with parents, knowing their boys. It is obvious that a man who does his duty in these capacities, should his estimate of duty be generous, will have very few spare hours in the day, if he teaches twenty-five or thirty hours a week, spends a minimum of two hours each night in marking and preparing lessons (and he can hardly spend less, indeed must often spend much more), and besides this not only gives up many of his free afternoons to running games or organising excursions, but also devotes a probable half-hour at the close of every half-day's work to seeing boys or parents, or managing a library, or calling a meeting of his "house." And yet when he has done all this, given a full measure of energetic teaching, and done all in his power for the good of his boys and of the school, he has not really accomplished his full professional duty. Indeed, he has left out the main factor in the adequate performance of this duty—private reading and professional self-improvement. France and Germany have first-rate teachers chiefly because their masters read enormously, and are often authorities of European reputation on some special subject. Germany rewards the production

of books showing personal research by grants of money; France, by giving her teachers light hours, makes such production easy. For in the question of teaching-hours France is as much ahead of Germany as Germany is of us. In Germany a master teaches from eighteen to twenty hours a week, whereas in France the masters of the top classes only teach from thirteen to fifteen, and of the other forms from sixteen to eighteen, any hour over these maxima being paid for extra on a liberal scale. Moreover, the French Government insists that a master's free hours shall be given *consecutively*, and the time-table has to keep this in view, in order that he may have a whole morning or afternoon (or often a whole day) free for private work. And it must be remembered that, unfortunately, as we think, both for themselves and their countries, Continental teachers are, as their name implies, professors or teachers, pure and simple, and take, as a rule, no part in the life of the school, outside the class-room and the masters' meetings. In England we must preserve what Prof. Sadler calls the "pastoral" side of the master's life at all costs. As, to the right man, it is the most delightful and consoling, so, to the nation, it has been the most useful, side of English education, and we appreciate its value too highly to be willing to let it go. But if we are to keep it, and, in addition to this, get the first-class teaching which is to keep our boys alert in school, and by its effectiveness shorten their preparation-work out of school, we *must* reduce a master's hours considerably, so as to leave him leisure not merely for preparation, but for study, and, above all, since we contemplate a race of normal men, for his home-life with wife and children. Whatever the cost of increasing the size of the staff to allow for this, it must be faced, unless we are going to spoil an excellent machine through an obtuse regard for economy. We do not drive an expensive horse to excess, because we know that we should spoil him; but we wantonly over-drive our first-class men, rather than engage a few more colleagues in order to keep the whole team fresh. We believe that nothing keeps the really able man out of the profession more than the knowledge that, if he does his duty under present conditions, he will have little time for reading and less for production. And we pay our men so badly, as we have seen, that not only all opportunities for self-culture, for the reading that "maketh a full man," but often many hours needed for proper preparation are sacrificed to earning a little more, to supplementing their income by starving their mind and spoiling their proper work. In Public Schools this

rewarding of evil with evil takes the form of private lessons, which fill up the evenings of so many men. In Day Schools it takes the physically more obnoxious form of undertaking evening work in some technical school or night class. This abuse of energy is especially common among the underpaid staffs of the smaller municipal schools, and applies to Head- and Assistant-masters alike. A Headmaster told one of the authors that he only saw his children put to bed on Sunday nights. During the rest of the week his work necessitated his leaving the house before they got up, and returning home after they had gone to bed.

Encouragements to Study.—Besides shortening his teaching hours, the authorities, actual or future, which govern the schools, might do something to promote intellectual efficiency by imitating the Clifton "grace term," and giving a master a periodic term off for study or travel, and by imitating the common Continental practice of granting an allowance of £20 for a continental journey, to Italy or Greece for the classical master, to France or Germany for the modern-language or the science man. For modern languages especially, frequent foreign travel is the first condition of effective teaching, and it is unfair that the master should have to pay for that by which the school is benefited. The London County Council in this, as in so many things, has shown a progressive spirit that deserves all praise.

Name.—The final plea that we shall add to this long list, is one that is not often made, but is nevertheless of some importance, if we wish to raise teaching into a profession. It is that the "assistant" be dropped, and that the title of a Secondary Teacher should be "Master" or "Headmaster," as the case may be. We do not talk of "assistant" doctors or lawyers, and it is absurd to brand the enormous majority of teachers with a name that suggests a junior apprenticeship. We are not anxious to be called "professors" or "upper teachers"; we prefer the English "master," a term more comprehensive and human, just as "boy" is a fuller and kindlier name than "pupil." The title "Assistant-master" (Hilfslehrer) should be confined to probationers.

Conclusion: The Master and the State.—Such are the reforms which must by some means be effected, and that soon, in the position of the Assistant-master in this country, if Secondary Education is to be made a reality with us as it is in France and Germany. To the writers of this book, the only way of speedy and lasting reform lies in the direction of professional organisation, under State guarantee and supreme

State control. The question as to whether Secondary Teachers should be Civil Servants, has entered at last the field of practical politics, and the Assistant-masters' Association is arranging a thorough investigation into the conditions of a master's life in countries where he has attained such status. We anticipate that their delegates will return with a conviction equal to our own, that it is desirable to give the profession in England the advantages they have seen it possessing abroad, and that it is possible by the exercise of a little statesmanship to establish at home the benefits of the Continental system while avoiding its defects. Because Civil Service to-day too often connotes a bad type of bureaucracy, suggesting the formalism and nepotism of amateur administrators in England, and the excessive interference and delight in minutiæ of grandmotherly control in France, there is no reason why it should involve for English teachers anything more than State responsibility, for competence on the one side and for fair treatment on the other. To the objection that masters who were Civil Servants would be deprived of individuality, initiative, and power to experiment, we reply, first, that they do not display these qualities, as far as teaching goes, very conspicuously at the present time, in spite of all our boasted freedom and elasticity, and secondly, that inspectors of the right type, as experience even in this country shows, actively encourage excellence and enterprise wherever they discover it. When it is said that it would be difficult to draw a line between Elementary and Secondary teachers, or between men and women, we answer that it would be absurd to attempt to draw one, that all alike will best perform their task when they are public servants, that so far from shutting up the profession into two water-tight compartments, as in Germany, we ought to keep the door open for talent, and make position and payment depend on qualification only, not on the prejudice of caste. And if we are told that the great endowed schools will lose their independence, we submit that independence can be too dearly purchased, when, except in three or four of their number, all Assistant-masters who are not hotel-keepers are without any prospect of a proper stipend ; and that the most efficient school in the country can ill dispense with the stimulus of public control, even if it disregards the obligation of making its good traditions general by taking a leading place inside a national system.

It is easy to invent bogies : it is harder to check for many years a cause that has reason and justice on its side. Neither external scotching nor internal lethargy will long prevent

schoolmasters from forming themselves into a real, not nominal, profession, and from offering a much-needed exemplar of a free and expert type of Civil Service. And it is obvious that, for members of a great profession, such public service must be national, not local, since it is useless to replace the fetters of the individual school by the limits of the town or county. Briefly to recapitulate our points, the master of the future will be registered by the State as efficient, when he has given proof of a liberal education, of special knowledge of the subjects he is to teach, of having been trained in the art and science of teaching, of having served with success a probationary period in a first-rate school, and of possessing proper qualifications, personal as well as intellectual, for the work he wants to undertake. When once registered, he will be guaranteed by the State a minimum salary (say, £150 rising to £350) and an adequate pension. The school or town will appoint, in the case of Assistants, on the advice of the Headmaster, from the registered candidates who apply, but the appointment will only be valid if ratified by the Provincial Board, and if the responsible governing body agree to pay the recognised minimum salary, failure to pay which will, as in Germany, involve distraint on the property of this body, whether corporate or individual. Promotion will be facilitated by the State keeping a record of each master, with the official reports upon his work of Inspectors and Headmasters, and by its insisting that all vacancies shall be advertised in a single public medium. The Governors or Headmaster will then be given a confidential copy of the reports on candidates, and will often consult with the inspectorate about their choice of men. The State will hold the supreme control of supply and demand to fall within its province, announcing the probable number of vacancies in each subject, and recommending for promotion to positions of distinction masters of conspicuous ability. It will, moreover, act as an ultimate court of appeal in cases of dismissal, on the analogy of the Scottish Education Department to-day. The salaries and rate of increase it guarantees will be the minimum, and the wealthier, or more enterprising, schools will continue to attract the best men by greater liberality: only, no school will any longer sweat an unqualified staff. The pension scheme will be national, with contributions from the school, possibly from the masters, certainly from the State: in order to secure it, some form of compulsory contribution by all schools to a common fund will be required, and may justifiably be enforced on the masters also, if the amount fixed be not beyond their

means. For the share of the State there is an excellent precedent in its present grants in aid of pensions to Elementary teachers. As regards the cost of all this, it is calculated by Prof. Sadler that if 14 per 1,000 of the population were, as they should be, in Secondary Schools, and if one teacher were provided for every fifteen pupils (boys or girls) with an average stipend of £200 a year, the 30,600 men and women teachers required would cost £6,060,000. This is only the price of four *Dreadnoughts*, and the greater part of it would be defrayed by fees and endowments.

Lastly, the State will encourage, and be guided by, the professional associations which are springing up to-day. They will continue to be necessary, in order to safeguard interests and to voice reforms. And it should not be impossible to establish, in England as elsewhere, a sane tradition as to the rights of public servants to combine in self-defence, and to criticise, individually and collectively, State policy. There seems no reason in the nature of things why Civil Servants alone should be dumb sheep, or why State payment should make plain-speaking penal. Masters are not altogether tactless even to-day. They will be scrupulously observant of the dignity of their profession and of the rights of the public which employs them, when once they have acquired professional rank, and seen their own rights publicly recognised.

The situation of the Assistant-master is to-day intolerable. To mend it, is quite the most urgent of all reforms. We venture the prediction that no half-measures will prove effective, and the plea that the State shall, as it alone can, apply the complete remedy. For we are sure that, without sacrificing one tittle of the individuality of the school or one jot of the personality of the teacher, it is practicable to make education a reality in England, by emancipating the masters, in whose hands it lies, from the penury, insecurity, and inefficiency which are still rather the rule than the exception. If the country is really interested in the training of its boys, it will, perhaps, at last realise that their masters must be experts and enthusiasts, with a proper professional status, and with a career of public service guaranteed and rewarded by the only agency that can give adequate expression to public needs, and bring system into public enterprise.

PART III

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CHAPTER I

THE ADMINISTRATION OF A HIGHER SCHOOL UNDER STATE CONTROL

THE AIMS OF ENGLISH EDUCATION

Object of Education—to know Ourselves and the World.—"The aim and office of instruction, say many people, is to make a man a good citizen, or a good Christian, or a gentleman; or it is to fit him to get on in the world, or it is to enable him to do his duty in that state of life to which he is called. It is none of these, and the modern spirit more and more discerns it to be none of these. These are at best secondary and indirect aims of instruction; its prime direct aim is to enable a man to know himself and the world. The true aim of schools and instruction is to develop the powers of our mind and to give us access to vital knowledge."[1] Thus, forty years ago, did Matthew Arnold define the object which our higher education in England should set itself to attain. After surveying the German system of instruction, and comparing it with our own, he saw that the chief need of English schools was an intellectual awakening, a renewed contact with vital knowledge, a redirection of interest and energy upon that highroad of mental training which the Greeks discovered, and the Renaissance caught sight of, and to which most European nations are trying to get back at the present time. We at home have travelled far since 1867, but without any final sense of security through finding the right track. We have turned down many by-ways, and nearly lost ourselves on a tempting road called Physical Science, and the guides are even now not all pointing in quite the same direction. But that wisdom, at least, which comes of experience is ours for the future, and we shall avoid short cuts that lead nowhere, equally with long and thirsty marches through the

[1] *Higher Schools and Universities in Germany* (Macmillan), pp. 154 and 173.

desert. We have learnt that neither the false Humanism which connotes grammar and formal rhetoric, nor the true Humanism which interprets the noblest thoughts of men, nor yet the Realism which aims at discovering the secrets of nature, can alone claim the proud title of a liberal education. And the growing agreement about the general features which the highroad of the mind must present when once we light upon it, makes us confident that soon we shall hear the firm ring of it beneath our feet.

Volition should be not only Energetic but Intelligent.—But the intellect, we are constantly being reminded, is not the whole of a boy's nature, and if we have left the mind stagnant and atrophied, we have at any rate produced in our Public Schools a type of character which, however unintellectual, is a superior weapon in this workaday world to anything manufactured in Germany or France. The reality of this superiority, judged by worldly tests, is perhaps becoming more doubtful to-day, but we are happy and proud to admit that our English schools, at their best, can boast a magnificent tradition of corporate life, and have shown an inspiration that amounts to genius in discovering and developing those influences that make for manliness and energetic volition. For an Imperial people this is much, enough indeed to compensate for a multitude of shortcomings. It is a worthy contribution of a great nation to the common problem of education. But the very fact of our possessing this unique talent is the best reason why we should perfect it, and give it the potency it merits. Volition is never the worse for being intelligent: rather we must own, with Plato, that unless it *is* intelligent and guided by knowledge, it will lead us into blundering, if not into ruin. Moreover, all character is crude, and, in grown men, unlovely, that is not based on clear thinking and adequate knowledge. Our young barbarians at play are a pleasing spectacle, but a boy of forty, with a horizon bounded by sport and the *Spectator*, is perhaps something of an anachronism. If we are to believe Prof. Sadler, "an alert and adaptive intelligence which has been trained to concentrate its attention, to think consecutively and candidly, to weigh evidence and to draw accurate conclusions, is the best intellectual result that a good education can give." Such a training the Public Schools afford to-day to the small minority to whom their curricula are adapted, and it is undeniable that they have, with few exceptions, made a serious effort to widen their course to meet more general requirements. But the effort has been individual and spasmodic: the reactionary headmaster is still extant. The need for a

strong external authority that can arrange the conditions of educational experiments, test their outcome, and make their proved successes common property, is as great as ever. Our English traditions must be maintained, but after purification and the letting in of light.

Ethics taught by Right Doing and Corporate Life.—A recent Congress has discussed, with every variety of national experience for its guidance, the desirability of giving definite moral instruction to our youth.[1] Upon the wants of other countries we pronounce no judgment, but we wish to emphasise the admission that our great English schools have already supplied the best basis for moral education, in the ideals which they have sought, with such success, to inculcate. By encouraging physical fitness, by giving their prefects duties which necessitate initiative and train in government, by treating all boys with confidence and courtesy, by making obedience the preparation for command, by setting up the standard of an intense, if narrow, patriotism through which boys and masters join in furthering the corporate prosperity of their school, they have taught morality by getting boys to do right and wholesome things, and cultivated its practice while avoiding its preaching. For boys a good deed is the best sermon, and our Public Schools have been rich in types of generous action and self-sacrifice. The same tradition has, on the whole, in the face of every difficulty, been followed in our older day schools, while they, in their turn, have furnished an admirable example of hard work, more frequent keenness about things of the mind, a sturdy independence of judgment (resulting from perpetual contact with life and normal breadth of human relationship), a contempt of class-distinction, an accessibility to what is practical and scientific in educational movements. It has been remarked that "experience in other countries shows that strongly-staffed and well-taught day schools are the intellectual backbone of a system of national education."[2] It is certain that day and boarding schools have invaluable lessons to teach each other, and that the day school will gain as much by emulating, within its natural limitations, the corporate life of the boarding school—its due subordination, its keen patriotism—as the boarding school will gain by rivalling the intellectual alertness and reasoned individualism of the day school. The future will perhaps see both types fused into one, and the gain will be great.

[1] For a full treatment of the subject, see Mr. Bompas Smith's admirable article in *Moral Instruction and Training in Schools*, vol. i. pp. 103-39 (Longmans). We are indebted to it for many suggestions in what follows.

[2] Prof. Sadler in *Science in Public Affairs* (George Allen), p. 79.

But inspired by Clear Thinking and Intellectual Activity.—But to-day all schools, day and boarding alike, have, in different degrees, one common need, the need of a more complete and scientific knowledge, imparted by trained and enthusiastic teachers to actively interested boys. We have admitted that sound bodies are the necessary basis of sound morals and sound minds, and that the head boys of our schools are receiving an excellent training in initiative and virile leadership. But morality can be encouraged by work inside the class-room as well as by play outside, and instruction should be equally a discipline and a pleasure to its recipient. Moral activities, fostered by the organisation of games and societies, must be inspired by the intellectual ideals apprehended in school hours. Work should not only discipline the mind by insistence on accuracy and on a patient struggle with difficulties, but also please and excite the mind by giving it a sense of progress achieved, insight gained, horizon widened. Similarly, games cease to educate when they fail to develop self-subordination and control, or make no demand on thought and judgment. In fact, the whole distinction between work and play is unsound in theory and pernicious in practice. The class-room and the playing-field alike are meant to promote pleasurable and disciplined activity. There would be, then, a sufficient inducement to improve our curricula and methods if we only considered the enormous ethical gain involved, and remembered the positively demoralising effect of monotonous, and therefore perfunctory, work. But there is another, hardly less potent, reason for the change. For success in any walk of life, especially in a higher walk, there is need to-day for Englishmen with not only strong bodies and strong wills, but with a trained and quick intelligence, a capacity for clear reasoning on complete premisses, a keen interest in, and comprehension of, the generally complex conditions of their own particular work. In State and local service, in private enterprise, even in our philanthropy, we must replace the amateur by the expert. Now, as has been well said, this trained aptitude is the by-product of a liberal education, and it seems likely that Matthew Arnold and the Greeks were right, when they interpreted such an education to mean a knowledge of oneself and the world.

A Reformed Curriculum Imperative.—It is our first duty, therefore, to attempt, as other nations have attempted, the elaboration of a course which shall give all boys of average ability some knowledge of both these realms, humanity and nature, *and the wish to know more.* We must adjust the new learning to the old, discarding what is useless and obsolete,

retaining and welcoming whatever stimulates and strengthens the mind. We shall agree, perhaps, with the High Master of Manchester that "the object of a liberal education is to develop an instrument able to acquire knowledge for itself, to think and form correct opinions, to discriminate the good from the bad, the beautiful from the ugly," and that the staple of such an education that fits for thought and action must be the study of man, his qualities, ideals, history, and modes of thought. Hence we shall retain the Humanities, and enforce linguistic accuracy both as a means and an end. But we shall no longer subordinate the matter to the manner, or linger so long in the grammatical vestibule of a language as rarely to reach the inspiration of its literature, or catch a glimpse of its many richly furnished rooms. We shall welcome the new ideas that Science has contributed, and submit our boys to something, at least, of the discipline in observation that the inventive study of nature affords. But we shall refrain from considering the memorising of scientific jargon more educative than the memorising of grammatical or mathematical jargon, and cease to confuse boys with parrots. Our training of the body and the senses will be, as far as knowledge permits, scientific and not by rule of thumb. And, with and through the brain and body, we shall train the will and spirit, so that principles may be acknowledged, but not blindly, and energy expended freely, but not unintelligently. As Prof. Sadler puts it: "The intellectual side of school-work is of the highest importance, but the greatest achievement of a school is to combine intellectual, practical, and ethical influences in the formation of sturdy and upright character—enlightened, apt to learn, trained to use scientific methods, but not unduly sensitive to the intellectual influence of the moment."

All Education a Training for Life.—We shall, perhaps, best realise the meaning of education and adapt our studies to furthering its proper purpose, if we remember that *Vitæ, non scholæ, discimus*, that the character of school-work should be prospective, that the school should train for life. And when we know something of ourselves and the world we live in, we shall not only be able the better to guide our impulses, systematise our thought, understand our opponents, and succeed in our business, but we shall, in proportion to the excellence of our teaching, want to increase our knowledge of men and things. We shall then be able, as a nation, to use our leisure rightly, and not ignobly, and, whether our hobby be microscopy or good literature, we shall experience an equal emancipation, and make, as Lord Morley would have us, our life both rich and austere.

THE STATE AND THE CURRICULUM

The Need for State Supervision of School Studies: its Nature.—We have already, in a previous chapter, urged the necessity for the State to exercise a general control over the outlines of the Secondary School curriculum. Only by such Central supervision can we be freed from the unscientific uniformity which is forced upon the schools to-day through the influence of external examinations, and secure a clearly thought-out variety of courses, intelligible to the public, adapted to the individual, of demonstrated educational value, and responsive to national needs. When once our masters are given a properly graded curriculum and relieved of the burden of cramming their boys for examinations, they will be able to teach their subject as an end in itself, and make their teaching a fine art, instead of a cynical attempt to outwit the examiner at the risk of sophisticating the pupil. The duty of the State will chiefly consist in maintaining, through its inspectors and leaving-certificates, a uniform standard of high attainment throughout the country, and in refusing to sanction any curriculum that violates sound educational canons. It will, within reasonable limits, be anxious to adjust the programme of every school to its own peculiar wants and the wants of the district, and it will leave the arranging of the details of the curriculum to the discretion of the Headmaster, while providing for his guidance a model scheme which experience has proved to be useful, and, under normal circumstances, the best attainable. Lastly, since it will insist that the teaching shall be in the hands of trained experts, it will extend a full measure of freedom to the master, preferring that he should exercise his own taste and judgment and express his own individuality in treating his subject, rather than submissively follow a stereotyped method, however ideal in theory this method may be. At the same time, inspectors will encourage the general adoption of all methods which have proved exceptionally productive of good results. They will disseminate information and offer advice, but they will recognise the paramount importance of personality, if teaching is to be at once an art and a moralising force. As Dr. Stanley Hall says: "The teacher must be a living fountain, not a stagnant pool," nor yet, we may add, a featureless canal. Indeed, the effectiveness of a school staff is in direct proportion to its variety in temperament and method.

The Elaboration of a National System of Instruction.—The State control, then, which we advocate, will combine sufficient liberty of internal organisation and sufficient variety

of school course with insistence on a high and equal standard of tested efficiency. In guiding the Secondary Schools of the country into the path of scientific instruction and of united effort towards a common educational goal, the State has set herself a task in which she will need all the expert wisdom she can command, and all the systematic experiment she can inspire, if she is to devise an intellectual training for her youth adapted to the requirements of to-day, acceptable to the teaching profession, and calculated to survive into the future because based on the soundest traditions of the past. And since the State alone can bring the schools into touch with life by transferring new ideals into the sphere of practice, it is necessary that she should closely examine the claims of these new ideals, and get a clear conception of their probable effect before adopting them as her own. A national system of instruction is not elaborated in a day: France and Germany have been busy a hundred years in perfecting their educational institutions. The important thing is that the foundations of a national system should at last be laid in England also. When school curricula are made a public concern and fully discussed in the light of day, there will be some likelihood of the best-informed opinion becoming immediately effective throughout the country, and of improvements in education being carried out with the promptness and precision that we are accustomed to witness when naval or military improvements are concerned.

Vindication of our own contribution to the subject.—It is impossible to forecast with certainty what form a national scheme of instruction will ultimately take in England. But we will venture, in all proper humility of spirit, to hazard a brief summary of the form we ourselves should like to see it take, after having weighed, with what small judgment is in us, the tendencies of other nations and the peculiar needs of our own country. In venturing our opinions, we shall feel fortified by the knowledge that what we advocate has been already urged, or hinted at, by nearly every moderate reformer who has written on the subject, and has received the approval of every thinking schoolmaster of our own acquaintance. In any case, it is our duty to be concrete, and to put our cards frankly on the table. If our hand is weak we shall be certain to hear of it, and Education stands equally to gain whether we or others chance to win the game. The only thing that matters is that the game shall be played: it cannot fail to be instructive.

Two Main Types of School Required.—We lead off, then, by submitting that we require two main types of Secondary School, differing not in spirit or in method or, more than is inevitable, in social status, but rather in the subjects

taught and in the life-work for which they prepare. The first type will be the school which aims at keeping its boys till the age of eighteen or nineteen, and then sending them through the Universities into the professions, or directly into the Higher Technical Institutes and Special Schools. The second type will be the school which aims at giving its boys a liberal education up to the age of sixteen, in order to train them for the commercial and industrial life of the locality. The first type will roughly correspond to a combination of the German *Gymnasium* and *Realgymnasium*, the second to the *Realschule*. The first will to-day be represented by the greater Grammar Schools and Public Schools, the second by the smaller Grammar Schools and Municipal and County Schools. The distinction between the two classes is not clearly drawn, since the first class, with the exception of the wealthy boarding schools, will probably lose the majority of its pupils at the age of sixteen, when a preliminary general course will have been completed, and in the second class a small minority of boys may stay on after the age of sixteen, in which event their school will play the part of the *Oberrealschule*. We say nothing of the fact that at present the majority of boys in day schools leave long before the age of sixteen. We are considering the future, when a complete course, whether up to sixteen or up to nineteen, will be insisted upon by the State and accepted as normal by the public. Under such conditions, it seems probable that two main types of school, one classical and semi-classical, the other frankly modern, will prove most effective, each concentrating its energy upon its own definite work. To-day the demand for secondary education is in many towns too small to admit of more than one school, which, perforce, caters as best it can for a variety of callings. Progress, however, will probably make differentiation of function both possible and normal, and the average Municipal School will best realise its utility by limiting its ambition: it should only become a higher modern school when the number of older boys justifies the extension of its course.

Correlation of Secondary with Preparatory and Elementary Education.—The second card we play is that, after making all allowances for precocious or retarded ability, it is indispensable that Secondary Instruction in every school should begin at the definite average age of 12, and that the preliminary training, which we may call primary education, should be made as far as possible identical, whether it be given in the elementary or in the preparatory school. This identification is practically an accomplished fact in France, and is becoming a reality in Berlin and other parts of

Germany. With regard to English schools it involves the application of two principles: (1) that languages should be begun later than to-day, with an interval of two years between each new language, and (2) that, from the age of ten, French teaching should be provided in the Elementary School, for boys who are likely to have the brains and opportunity to profit by secondary instruction. The first principle is based on the experience of France and of the Reform schools of Germany, and is supported by a growing majority of practical teachers in this country. It will become immediately applicable when the present pernicious system of entrance scholarships to Public Schools has been abolished. Its advocates are convinced that if languages are to be successfully taught, they must be preceded by a thorough training in the mother-tongue, and then imparted in large doses, especially in the first two years, so that a boy shall have a thorough grasp of one language before taking up another. The aim should be intensity of effort, made when the boy's mind is sufficiently matured, rather than a course of concurrent study of several languages extended over ten years, in which progress is so slow as to be imperceptible, and, as a result, the keenness of the little boy, through very boredom, is replaced by the indifference of the adolescent. The first language taught will be French, the language common to both modern and classical schools, begun at ten and continued throughout the course. Next, in most schools of the higher type will come Latin, at twelve, though some Municipal Schools will prefer German. Lastly, at fourteen, Greek or German will be started as alternatives, according to the future destiny of the pupil. In every school an effort will be made to secure a uniform common training for all boys up to the age of fourteen, and it is immaterial whether this training be given in the Preparatory or in the Secondary School, though it is of the highest importance that the change should be made from the Elementary School to the smaller classes and different atmosphere of the Secondary School by the age of twelve. The work of the Preparatory and of the Elementary School must be closely affiliated to that of the Secondary, so that there may be no break of continuity and none of the bewildering difference of attainment on entrance that we find to-day. The State should insist on a uniform test being rigidly applied, before admitting boys to higher schools: by this means the preliminary training would be levelled up to a proper standard. As for the second principle, that the Elementary School should differentiate the work of its upper classes so as to allow the mentally capable adequately to

prepare for Secondary instruction, we would remind the reader that, according to the High Master of Manchester, six times as many ex-Elementary schoolboys take University degrees in Science and Mathematics as in Classics, simply because they are too heavily handicapped, by want of linguistic training, to compete with other boys. If the Secondary School postpones Latin till twelve and Greek till fourteen, the Elementary School must meet her half-way, and give her promising pupils French instruction, at the hands of qualified teachers, from the age of ten. Linguistic training is the backbone of higher education, as every nation recognises, and the institution of alternative courses in the Elementary School to facilitate this training is to-day being urged by American authorities who can hardly be accused of abetting class-distinctions. We read, for instance, "Equality of opportunity, which is the demand of democracy, does not mean equality of work, provided always alternative courses are kept equally open to all kinds of children who can pursue the studies with profit. Once grant the practicability of alternative courses, there is no reason why one of these courses should not contain one or more foreign languages, algebra instead of arithmetic, etc., and be essentially secondary in character. . . . The course not preparatory for the high school would naturally be organised primarily for those children who contemplated leaving school at, or about, fourteen years of age."[1] True liberality consists in levelling up the instruction of the able poor so that they shall enjoy, without hustling, what is now a privilege of the rich—a classical, or, at least, a thorough linguistic, education.

The Extremists of the Right and Left and the Curriculum.—Turning now to consider the claims of different subjects to inclusion in the curriculum of the Secondary School, we find ourselves confronted at the present time with a bewildering variety of opinion, both among those who teach and those who criticise. On the one hand it is held that the old grammatical discipline of the Classics, backed by the mental gymnastic of Mathematics, still remains the only sound training for every boy, and that, though the pressure of public opinion has introduced the heresies of Modern Languages, English subjects, and Physical Science into our programmes, such fads must be rendered innocuous by being given a minimum amount of time and a maximum amount of archmagisterial discouragement. These are the tenets, rarely officially expressed, for that would be too dangerous, but quietly acted upon in the cloistered privacy of their Public

[1] *Administration of Public Education in the United States*, Dutton and Snedden (Macmillan), 1908, p. 360.

Schools, by the majority of our Old Guard, the members of the Headmasters' Conference. At the other extreme we get "Kappa," who wishes our schoolboys to be taught, above all things, to realise the majesty of the stars and the mystery of human destiny, and Mr. A. C. Benson, who would away with all Classics except for the gifted few, because, as he explains, "my hope would be that, if the classics were omitted for average boys from the curriculum, those boys might leave school reading French and possibly German with ease, writing French fluently and correctly, with a sound knowledge of general history, and, in particular, of modern European history, with a real acquaintance with the modern conditions, political, social, and religious, of the world, with a general acquaintance with science in its different branches, with a practical knowledge of simple mathematics, a thorough acquaintance with the Bible, with the power of using their own language forcibly, clearly, and accurately, and with a real knowledge of the best English literature." If the expulsion of the Classics is certain to produce a race of modern-side boys with a mature insight into world-problems that, for their years, would amount to genius, and with a fluent and forcible command of French and English which few middle-aged Englishmen can venture to think is theirs, then perish the Classics immediately as a school subject! To such boys they would be a trifling conquest at the University, or even in spare evening hours at home.

The View of Moderate Reformers of the Left Centre.—To us, however, it seems that the average boy will never reach this intellectual stature, whether by Mr. Benson's or by any other scheme, though many cubits may be added to his growth by catching him young, and subjecting him from his earliest years to a training which stimulates his interest in every branch of knowledge, while respecting his particular capacity for self-realisation through one special branch, whether that branch be Classics or Engineering. If the little boy is trained in right habits of concentration and observation, taught to ask questions and see connections, and, above all, if he is given, in the primary course, an interest in English history and literature, and plenty of exercise in English expression, oral and written; if, upon this basis of actively apprehended knowledge and alert interest, he is then introduced to a carefully graduated course of study both of languages and what the Germans call "realities," without premature specialisation in either; and if, when an adolescent of sixteen, he is allowed, without undue sacrifice of general all-round training, to devote the greater part of his time to

the subject for which he is most gifted, then it seems probable that we can produce good results with even average material, and turn out generations of boys who shall have their minds neither atrophied by a ten years' grind in an antiquated classical mill, nor starved by being confined to a few "modern" subjects, on the plea that the classical failure, under bad conditions, is only capable of cultivating the Gallic and Anglican Muses, though for this culture he has apparently a capacity not far removed from genius.

The Testimony of France and Germany.—If we are to legislate with any hope of finality, and to reform wisely and not rashly, we shall be well advised to study with close attention the solutions which France and Germany offer of a problem in the main identical. We still retain such an amazing insularity of outlook when we pronounce on educational topics, that we are tempted to recommend a compulsory *Wanderjahr* through Continental schools for all who are set in authority over curricula, whether Headmasters or Inspectors. Already the best work of the Board of Education has been inspired by Continental practice, and Prof. Sadler's labours have made ignorance of such practice altogether inexcusable. When we are told that a boy can only learn one language well, we reply that abroad he learns three admirably. To the statement that we must choose between the Classics and Knowledge of the World, we submit as sufficient answer the fact that the *Gymnasium* combines both. To those who maintain that Latin and Greek can only be properly acquired if begun by boys not long out of petticoats, we commend an acquaintance with the results attained at Frankfort, where Latin begins at twelve and Greek at fourteen, or in our own University of Wales, where, as one of the writers can testify by personal experience, students who know no Greek at matriculation, acquire in three years a knowledge of the language equal to that of a boy in the Lower Sixth of a Public School. Every schoolmaster, moreover, knows the keenness of a boy in starting a new subject: he feels a sense of promotion, a new dignity, a fresh demand on energy to which it is his duty to respond. Wisdom would suggest our taking advantage of this attitude by introducing new knowledge at definite stages in each boy's development, and securing that progress in it shall be rapid enough to conserve enthusiasm, whilst sustaining interest in old knowledge by every artifice of teaching. Twice the present ground could be covered, under expert guidance, by learners who were stimulated to their full activity, and it would be found that hard work, if it were also happy work,

would fatigue much less than the sleepy crawl which we have allowed ourselves to consider inevitable for average boyhood. We have Mr. Benson's testimony that at Eton "work is seriously regarded," but we find it difficult to reconcile this serious work with the intellectual failure which he admits is general, unless Etonian methods are worse than we like to think them. Indeed, in all his schemes of reform Mr. Benson seems to neglect the necessity of conative effort on the part of the boy as the primary condition of all progress. Brilliant teaching of soft options, without this effort, is doomed to sterility: if the effort is made, and we agree that it will only be made under the stimulus of good masters with a belief in their subject, we can retain the hardest options, and English boys will master them as easily as their comrades of the *Lycée* and *Gymnasium*.

Educational Value the Principle of Subject Selection.—We venture, then, to postulate that a Secondary School curriculum should be framed in view of the adaptability of the various subjects to educate the intellect and heart, and not in view of their relative difficulty as conditioned to-day by inefficient teaching and an unscientific plan of study. Moreover, we hold it to be axiomatic that a liberal education, particularly up to the age of sixteen, means the training of the whole boy, and not the development of some special faculties while the rest are stunted. At school, the boy must be taught to know himself and the world, though in his last few years he will, according to his bent, devote his attention more exclusively to humaner, or more scientific, studies. The domain which includes Knowledge of Humanity and Knowledge of Nature is entered by various gates,—languages, history, science, mathematics. The different value of these subjects is well summed up by Canon Glazebrook,[1] who tells us that *Languages* train the memory, taste, imagination, expression, and observation: that *History* teaches social reasoning about men and institutions: that *Mathematics* educate the abstract (and, in Geometry, the concrete) reasoning, while *Science* develops the concrete reasoning and observation. If this assessment is correct—and Canon Glazebrook's opinion should be impartial, since he is a "Double First" in Classics and Mathematics—then it is obviously psychologically proven that Languages, which train far more faculties than any other subject, must, here as abroad, form the staple of our Secondary Instruction. "The proper study of mankind is man," his past, his mental qualities, his aspirations and ideals.

[1] *Teaching and Organisation*, Article on "Specialisation" (Longmans), 1897.

The Value of Linguistic Training.—In learning a foreign language, a boy acquires both the dexterity of wit involved by the comparison of different idioms and of different formal modes of thought, as shown in word and sentence structure, and also an introduction to a new world, a new atmosphere, wherein men feel and act after a strange fashion of their own, to which sympathetic interest is the only key, and of understanding which a deeper and wider outlook is the certain result. Two birds well worth the powder are thus killed with the same shot, if only the teacher is careful to lay as great a stress upon the *content* as upon the *form* of the language: and those who deny, with much justice, the educational value of knowing many names for the same thing, will be ready to admit the advantage of a first-hand contact with a variety of national attitudes towards life. And although we are convinced that an excellent training is obtainable through a thorough literary study of French and German, we are equally convinced that, for boys of any linguistic ability, the ideal approach to that "real acquaintance with the modern conditions, political, social, and religious, of the world," of which Mr. Benson speaks, will always be through the Classics, in which most modern problems are already found, stated in their simplest and clearest terms, and free from the obscuring mist of party feeling.

The Unique Value of the Classics.—Moreover, on the baldest utilitarian grounds, it were prudent to retain Latin in our Secondary Schools for others than future specialists in Classics. Not only is English literature barely intelligible unless the boys know Latin, but Latin is the basis of five modern languages, and by the character of its literature, crowded with modest tales of simple heroism, and of its history, describing the institutions and conquests of a virile and imperial people, is in itself a language singularly well adapted to the education of English boys. Again, it is unrivalled as a mental gymnastic, by reason of its synthetic structure and the strict logic of its grammar. Its idiom is so different from ours as to compel thought in every sentence; it teaches observation by enabling a boy to trace the root meaning of English words; and, especially in verse-making, penalises inaccuracy by causing mistakes immediately to tell. With Greek the style and thought are everything, and the aim should rather be wide reading of authors for their own sake than, when grammatical accuracy has been secured, the duplication of the mental drill already furnished by the study of Latin. In both languages the texts need saving from their comments, and should be read mainly with a view to

the information about the intellectual life and civilisation of antiquity which they afford. Textual criticism and philological discussions should be postponed to the University period, together, perhaps, with the task of putting the final polish on Classical composition. They have too long blocked the way to a vitalised course of Classical study in schools.

Suggested Curricula for the Two Types of School.—But it will, perhaps, make for clearness if we now give tentative schemes of study for Higher Secondary, and for Municipal, or County, Schools, before making further comments on subject values:

HIGHER SECONDARY SCHOOL, PREPARING FOR THE UNIVERSITIES

	Below Course.		Lower Course.				Classical Specialists.			Other Specialists. F		
Average Age of Boys .	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	16	17	18
Divinity . .	A1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
English . .	6	6	3	3	2	2	3	2	2	3	2	2
Latin . . .	—	—	6	6	6	6	} 15	} 20	} 22	3	3	3
Greek . . .	—	—	—	—	B6	6				B4	4	4
French . .	6	6	5	5	3	3	3	} D3	} 2	3	} 3	} 2
German . .	—	—	—	—	B6	6	—			B4	} 4	} 4
History . .	3	3	2	2	2	2	E3	3	3	} E3	} 3	} 3
Geography .	2	2	2	2	2	2	—	—	—			
Mathematics	6	6	6	6	5	5	5	3	2	} 14	} 16	} 17
Science . .	—	—	} C3	} 3	3	3	2	—	—			
Nature Study	3	3			—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Writing . .	1	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Drawing . .	2	2	2	2	2	2	—	—	—	1	—	—
Manual Training . . .	2	2	2	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total periods per week .	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32

Each period has an average duration of 45 minutes.

A Another period will be given to Divinity on Sundays in boarding schools.

B Greek and German are alternative subjects.

C A bracket between two subjects means that the periods can be distributed according to need.

D German, instead of French, may be taught in the two top Classical forms.

E In the last three years Classical boys will give two-thirds of their time to Classical, and one-third to Modern, History; Modern boys the reverse.

F History and Modern-Language Specialists will have time assigned from the periods given to Mathematics and Science.

Civics will be taught in a period taken from an English subject, *Hygiene* in a period taken from Science or Mathematics.

MUNICIPAL SECONDARY SCHOOL, PREPARING FOR COMMERCE AND INDUSTRY

	Below Course.		Lower Course.				Higher Course.			
Average Age of Boys. .	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
Divinity . .	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
English . .	6	6	3	3	3	3	C4	4	4	(+2)D
French . .	6	6	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	
German . .	—	—	B6	6	5	5	5	5	5	
Latin . . .	—	—	B6	6	5	5	5	5	5	
History . .	3	3	2	2	2	2	} 4	} 4	} 4	
Geography .	2	2	2	2	2	2				
Mathematics.	6	6	6	6	6	6	5	5	5	
Science . .	—	—	} 3	} 3	4	4	5	5	5	(+5)E
Nature Study	} A3	} 3			—	—	—	—	—	
Writing . .	} 1	} 1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Drawing . .	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	(+2)D
Manual Training . . .	2	2	2	2	2	2	—	—	—	
Total periods per week .	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	

Each period has an average duration of 45 minutes.

A A bracket between two subjects means that the periods can be distributed according to need.

B Latin and German are alternative subjects.

C One of the English periods during the last three years might well be devoted to the study of Classical History, and of Classical Literature in translations.

D Two extra periods to be assigned to English *or* to Drawing, at the option of the boy, in the Higher Course.

E Five extra periods may be assigned to Science, as an alternative to keeping up a second language in the Higher Course.

Civics will be taught in a period taken from an English subject, *Hygiene* in a period taken from Science or Mathematics.

The schemes make no claim to finality: indeed they are rather based on what is possible to-day than on what is ideally desirable. At the same time, they may be allowed one merit, that of being workable: for they represent, in the main, the actual practice of many Continental, and some few English, schools.

School-hours should be Reduced.—One admission of defect in the above curricula we hasten to make. The school-hours are, from the ideal standpoint, somewhat too long: one excuse is that, to-day, English teaching is, as a rule, too poor, and English schoolboys, for various reasons, too slack, for tolerable results to be hoped for, if school-work is

reduced before these defects disappear. With their disappearance, a maximum of 30 periods of 45 minutes' duration should suffice, and this number should be reduced for the younger boys. In Germany, the hours vary between 25 *Stunden* of 50 minutes for the lower forms, to 28 or 31 for the higher, and they are still admittedly too long. In France, though the preparation hours are excessive, the work in class rarely amounts to much more than 23 periods of about 52 minutes each, without the teaching being found to suffer from insufficient time.

The Main Features of the Suggested Plans of Study.—Turning to the curricula themselves, it will be seen that our ideal is to maintain a common course of study in every school alike (if Municipal Schools only choose Latin, rather than German, as their second language) up to the age of fourteen. It is everywhere recognised as desirable that a boy should be given every opportunity to discover his capacities before choosing his career, and the complete co-education of Classicists and Moderns until fourteen, followed by their partial co-education until sixteen (possible in every detail except the third language), is calculated to increase the facility of school organisation, and to preserve the ethical unity of the school. Moreover, it allows the transfer of boys, from the Latin-teaching Municipal School to the Grammar School, to be effected as late as fourteen, without any break in the continuity of their studies. The Lower Course, for boys between twelve and sixteen, is encyclopædic, or, rather, general, in character, and complete in itself: those boys who purpose leaving at sixteen will almost all choose German, and will find that, after two years' good teaching, there will be little difficulty in following up the subject in voluntary classes. The other salient features of the suggested curricula are: (1) that a new language is started at regular intervals and studied intensively in its earlier stages; (2) that time is allotted for a complete and systematic course in every branch of liberal instruction, not forgetting our educational Cinderellas—English, History, and Geography. As to the Higher Course, for boys who are certificated as having attained a proper standard of all-round development, we believe that a somewhat greater liberty to improve their special talent than is permitted in France and Germany, is without any real danger.

Specialisation justified: when and to what extent.—If specialists in Classics, the most widely educative subject, give only two-thirds of their time, and boys who have made Science, or Mathematics, or History, their *Fach*, only half their time, to their particular study, enough room will be left

for other subjects to prevent what Canon Glazebrook calls "the baleful predominance of one interest in an unformed mind." When a boy has reached the end of his tether in one direction, he is more profitably employed in other work, and his industry is best stimulated by giving him a definite line of study in which to make himself thoroughly proficient. That school is likely to be most alive which cultivates a variety of alternative special courses, providing that they are pursued in a spirit of equal liberality, and that all alike encourage a belief in knowledge as an end in itself and not as a means to some cheaply utilitarian end. If we maintain this standard, we shall welcome the inclusion of such special studies as Engineering and Agriculture, when the situation of the school is suitable, and the number of pupils sufficient to secure the healthy rivalry of proper classes and to justify an adequate plant, while we shall inexorably postpone such purely commercial subjects as Bookkeeping and Shorthand till the after-school period in which they will quickly enough be mastered, or at least confine them to the step-motherly atmosphere of extra classes out of school-hours.

It remains for us briefly to touch upon a few further points in the Secondary Curriculum.

The Relative Claims of French and German.—With regard to the precedence of French or German, there are not a few who hold, with the Headmaster of Bedford, that German should be made the first language, on the ground that the greater unlikeness of its idiom to English gives its study more grit, and because it is easier than French to pronounce. Moreover, it is urged that the neglect of German in English schools is both discreditable and dangerous. It seems, however, likely that the general custom of beginning with French is, for several reasons, justifiable. Not merely is French the only language which little boys have some chance of learning in the nursery, and of hearing spoken at home, but, however superficially similar the idiom of French and English, the temperament of the two nations is so dissimilar, with a dissimilarity so instructive, while their literatures are so mutually complementary, that a knowledge of French is indispensable to every boy, and, in our opinion, forms, just because of its initial easiness, the best stepping-stone between the mother-tongue and the sterner mental discipline of Latin and German. It seems sound, even in educating the young, to advance from the easy to the hard, from the known to the unknown. At the same time, we readily admit that no education is complete without German, which, like Latin in the past, is to-day the necessary key to acquaintance with

the progress of scholarship and science. German should be known by Classical specialists (and perhaps might with advantage be taught in the two top Classical forms), and will be brought within the reach of mathematicians and scientists when the older Universities have abolished, for such students, the farce of compulsory Greek. On the one hand, we are old-fashioned enough to wish every boy of literary ability who completes a full school course, to be trained in the ancient languages, because they will never be learnt if not at school, while German can be easily acquired in later life, and because we cannot think that the reason commonly advanced, namely, that all the clever boys are on the Classical side, is a sufficient explanation of the fact that, in Germany and France, where modern languages are actively encouraged, and not in England only, it is constantly maintained by employers that the classically-trained boy proves the best prepared when he takes up technical and mechanical subjects as his life-work.

The Importance of Knowing German.—On the other hand, we are convinced that German will prove a profitable investment for the majority of boys who go directly from the Grammar School into commerce and industry, at sixteen or seventeen, and on less utilitarian grounds its study will be invaluable, if it leads to increased travel of Englishmen in Germany and the consequent appreciation of a kind-hearted and virile people. As *The Morning Post*[1] well puts it, "the public has no idea of the depth and sincerity of the feelings in which the Germans enfold the large simple features of life . . . of the force which ideals have so long exerted upon them. But the greatest loss [from the neglect of German in schools] is that British statesmen have failed to understand the German national movement and all that it implies, and to perceive that, if England is to keep her place, she must be able to rival Germany in the arts of organisation, especially in the organisation of knowledge."

But we have exhausted our space. We close by remarking that in some part of the time-table, during some part of the school course, room must be found for the teaching of *Civics* and *Hygiene*; that *Manual Training* is a British foster-child of proved excellence, of which we have a right to be proud; and that international experience applauds *Nature Study* as the best introduction to scientific method for young boys. As to *Science* itself, we will leave Prof. Sadler to define its purpose. "Science teaching," he tells us,[2] "should aim, not at the premature accumulation of scientific knowledge, but at

[1] February 27, 1909.
[2] *Science in Public Affairs* (George Allen), p. 84.

the cultivation of an attitude of mind which is interested in the study of Nature, and at the training of the habit of accurate observation, and of the power of investigating the relations between cause and effect."

THE INNER ORGANISATION OF THE SCHOOL

The Headmaster no Bureaucrat, but a Real Monarch.—No one who is acquainted with the inner working of a French school, and has seen the result of making the *Proviseur* a mere bureaucrat, without initiative, without real authority, and, as a rule, without the confidence and respect of the teaching staff, will doubt for a moment the soundness of the English tradition which gives a free field to the energy of the Headmaster; and, because it expects him not only to administrate but also to teach and lead, ensures him room to realise his ideals and express his personality. It is true that, in the future, the guidance of a trained staff, with secure tenure and ultimately responsible to the State, will be a supreme test of good generalship; but we have the example of the German *Direktor* to prove that a Headmaster of tact, individuality and kindliness can secure keen co-operation, and inspire intense personal loyalty, among his colleagues, without retaining over them the power of life and death. The great man will always be φύσει king, whatever the constitutional restrictions on his autocracy, and it will be the duty of the State to see that none but great and good men are given high command. If the monarchy is to be limited, it must still be a real monarchy, not the shadow of a legal fiction, since the little people of the realm are in the tribal stage which demands a chieftain to be followed, a living incarnation of strength and justice to be revered.

Delegation of Authority.—The Headmaster, then, will remain King, but if he is to rule easily and successfully, he will, in working the school, invest with his authority ministers to take direct charge of the various administrative branches of his kingdom. While retaining a general oversight over every kind of school-activity, he will more and more delegate immediate control of each boy to his Form-master and House-master, and immediate control of each subject to a colleague, who combines seniority with high qualification, and who, as head of a department, will be given the task of co-ordinating the teaching of his subject throughout the school, thereby relieving his chief of the excessive burden of detail which still too often rests upon his shoulders. The duty of such a departmental head will be, not so much to

impose his own ideas upon his fellow-teachers, as to secure, what is so rare to-day, the hearty and thoughtful co-operation of all the men who take the same subject, with a view to obtaining continuity of treatment, some unity of method, and a precise calculation of the ground which each form should cover.

Societies of Subject-teachers.—Indeed, English schools are in real need of more free trade among the members of their staffs. A clever man can be quite as stimulating and useful to his colleagues as to his boys, and voluntary "societies for mutual improvement," especially among modern-language teachers, have always been found to react beneficially upon the intellectual work of the form-room. But if they are to be made helpful to the school to the full measure of their capacity, they must include the weaker brethren as well as the first-class man. Too often they degenerate into a selfish pastime, through excluding X. and Y., to whom they would be invaluable, "because they really, don't you think, don't know enough to join us."

The Form-master and the Specialist.—In the system which we advocate, not only will the Headmaster retain the right to select his lieutenants from a list of qualified candidates, but it will also be his prerogative to assign to each his particular work, since he alone is in a position to gain an intimate knowledge of the special capacities of his colleagues, and to decide in which part of the school their various gifts are likely to prove most effective. His greatest difficulty will probably lie in so distributing the teaching as to identify, as far as possible, the Form-master with the Specialist. Few will deny that one of the best features of English schools is the Form-master, a man whose interests are centred on a particular group of boys, who is made in a measure responsible for their welfare, not merely intellectual but physical and moral, who exercises an influence of an intensity proportionate to the limitation of its sphere, who is entrusted, particularly in the day school, with a very real cure of souls. He is at the opposite pole to the professional lecturer who interprets his duty as giving a lesson in his special subject to successive sets of boys, without entering into human relationship with any, a type which even France endeavours to counterbalance by putting French and Classical teaching in the hands of the same man, in order that something of class spirit may be maintained, and which Germany combats by instituting a tutorial bond between each form and its *Ordinarius*, generally the master with whom the boys pass the greatest number of school hours. In the England of the past the Form-master reigned unchallenged, but without conspicuous success as a teacher,

seeing that he was expected to profess a variety of subjects, of most of which he made no pretension to special knowledge, whereas it is to-day admitted to be theoretically axiomatic that no subject shall be taught except by an expert, however grievously we still sin against the light in practice.

A Possible Solution.—Since, therefore, we need the Specialist, and yet cannot part with the Form-master, the only solution seems to lie in the direction of requiring for the future all masters, like their German colleagues, to qualify (1) in some special branch of scholarship as a main study, and (2) in one or two other branches as a subsidiary study, these other branches being, for most masters, English subjects, in order that some basis for form-teaching may be secured. But the chief crux is our useful modern habit of redistributing boys, according to their ability, in sets, for modern languages, science, and mathematics, and although only University College School once adopted (and has since abandoned) the American custom of giving every boy a separate time-table, thus, as has been wittily said, providing "*éducation à la carte*," we are far from the simplicity of the Continent, where the form is kept together for all its work. It seems possible, however, to keep the Form-master a reality, by giving the charge of a form to the man who takes English below the Course, and English and Latin in the Lower Course. Things are simplified in the Upper Course, where specialisation is greater, and where boys will generally have as Form-master the teacher of their special subject. This will, at last, give some opportunity for appointing other than "literary" men to what should be regarded as a post of honour. There will, perhaps, always be a need, in form distribution, to compromise between what is ideal and what is practicable: we must have our specialists, even in History and Geography, if we are to ensure good teaching, and they cannot all be Form-masters. But while it will often be wise to give a form to a Set-master, if he is peculiarly human, the principle to be followed in the main, is to appoint as Form-master the man who has most to do with the form in the course of the week. Some schools, it may be noted, have started the practice of moving the master up the school with his form: to us this seems pernicious both for the boys and for the men, who alike benefit by a change. There is more to be said for moving a master about the school, in order to preserve his intellectual freshness and to save him from a rut. Probably, the ideal system is to appoint young men, fresh with the latest polish of the University, to the top forms, and gradually move them down, so that they may cope with the wayward adolescent in the

vigour of mature manhood, and, when their teaching experience is greatest and their temper mellowest, be promoted to the distinction of taking the bottom form. Certainly, young boys require the most skilled masters that the school possesses, and it is not unlikely that fathers of families will best understand the ways and powers of little children.

Promotion of Boys.—The next problem that demands consideration, is the promotion of boys from form to form. The alternatives are annual, bi-yearly, and terminal. Our older English custom favours the last two, but many schools of importance are now adapting themselves to the Continental practice of a yearly course for all boys without exception. The aim of such a course is to secure a good average of attainment, but it is admittedly harsh to the able boy, who is anxious to reach the ampler atmosphere of the top form, instead of being reined in to keep pace with his slower-witted comrades. To us it seems that, while the yearly course is suited to the majority of boys, it is desirable to promote more rapidly the gifted few. The difficulty that such an able minority would find in falling into line with the work of a new form half-way through its programme, is easily exaggerated, and could in any case be avoided, either by making each term's work a graduated whole in itself, when terminal moves would be possible for clever boys, or, perhaps better, by arranging that every form shall revise, in the third term of the school year, the course it has taken more slowly in the two previous terms. Able boys could then be promoted twice a year, in September and in May, and since a thorough grounding in one form would alternate for them with rapid revision in the next, there would be little danger either of overstrain or of superficial study. Cleverness can, however, generally be trusted to look after itself: our chief duty towards it is to avoid cramping it within a rigid system.[1]

[1] Since writing the above, we have read an article by Mr. Paton, on "The Principles of Promotion," in *School World*, vol. viii. 1906, p. 162. Speaking generally, it is in agreement with the scheme of courses, and specialisation after a common liberal training, which we advocate. One point made is especially suggestive for our immediate subject. Referring to the primary or preparatory course, Mr. Paton writes (p. 164): "As regards promotion, the very numbers which seem to demand regimentation are really the greatest help to differentiation. If classes are reduced to reasonable dimensions, there should be three classes for each year, graded, according to their rate of progress, into (1) a quick pack; (2) a medium pack; (3) a slow pack. The quick pack will probably cover in one year twice the ground covered by the slow, and will be ready for promotion to Secondary work at ten, while the slow pack will only be ready at fourteen." He adds that the slow pack will disappear after Matriculation [our four years' general course]. The reader must bear in mind throughout that,

The Place of Examinations.—The subject of Promotion suggests Examinations. When we get the right type of teaching, it will no longer be necessary to test the master terminally, and when State Inspection and State Leaving-certificates replace the present maze of external examinations, the school will be able to teach so as to educate the mind, instead of cramming it with ill-digested facts. Promotion will become regular for the average boy, and all the elaborate examining machinery of to-day will be superfluous, except at the end of the Lower and Higher Courses. It will be recognised that literary lessons are meant to impart information and stimulate interest, and that ability to reproduce knowledge on paper is not a final test of brain-power in young boys. At the same time, examinations, if kept subordinate, are from time to time a useful stimulus to both boys and masters; but they must be the accident, and not the essence, of the term's or year's work.

Parallel Forms.—A better stimulus, too, will probably be found in the development of a healthy intellectual rivalry between parallel forms, of which we often find as many as four for each year, in the great French *lycées*. Such forms could go to the same master for each subject, and be made to compete against each other for a cup, awarded for the highest average of marks during the term: there seems to be no valid reason for appealing to the sporting instincts of the British boy in the playing-field but totally neglecting them in the class-room.

The Fixing of School-hours.—With regard to hours of work, we are convinced of the soundness of intensive effort during short periods. Both masters and boys, if they have worked hard, have not much energy left after forty-five minutes' teaching, and with little boys even less is desirable. By careful planning of the time-table, it can be made possible for higher forms to throw two short periods into one if there is adequate ground. The detailed arrangement of school-hours will naturally vary with the particular circumstances of each school, since the day school which draws its boys from a distance will, for instance, find a curtailed luncheon interval, and an early dismissal, preferable to the long dinner-hour, advisable in schools where most boys can take their midday meal at home. All schools should allow of a few minutes' interval between each lesson, and of a longer break in the middle of the morning, and we incline to

when we speak of a course suitable for the years between twelve and sixteen, we are speaking of boys of *average* ability. The quick will, we hope, in England always be allowed to get ahead, and the medium not be kept back by the slow. Brains, not age, must be the standard of promotion.

think that, for most schools, three half-holidays a week are in every way desirable, provided that the morning's work on these days is not made too long. Schools like St. Paul's and Manchester, with an enormous percentage of train-boys, are wise in not bringing them up on Saturday morning; but generally speaking, much more pleasure is got out of two or three half-holidays than out of one whole holiday, the earlier part of which is apt to be wasted. The custom now universal in boarding schools, of late afternoon school in the winter terms and early afternoon school in the summer term, is as firmly established in reason as the retention, by some of them, of early morning school, everywhere medically condemned, is rooted in folly and in a mediæval cult of self-disciplinary torture.

Evening Preparation.—The amount of home, or preparation, work demands rigid limitation by the Headmaster. It is, as a rule, excessive, especially in boarding schools, where it is considered necessary to fill up every waking moment with a definite object, lest leisure should be abused. If five hours are actively spent in school, then from one to two and a half hours, according to the age of the boy, should be enough for evening work. The incidence of such work will be arranged by the Form-master, who should see that it is evenly distributed throughout the week, warn his colleagues of excessive demands, and, if need be, test inside the class-room the average time taken to do the work his boys are set.

THE MASTER AND THE BOY

The Institution of Tutors Desirable.—One of the most useful movements of recent years has been the adaptation to day schools of the "House" system, previously confined to boarding schools. The subject will be treated at length by a special contributor, in a later section. Here we will merely suggest that, if the average House numbers fifty (and games make this number desirable), then it would be well for each House to have, not merely a House-master, but also a House-tutor, in order that those personal tutorial relations may be secured, which are impossible if one man is in charge of a group of more than twenty-five boys. Tutors were first appointed in University College School to fill the gap caused by the abolition of the form; but even where the form system is retained, it is useful in a large school that every boy should on entrance be put under the "moral tuition," the paternal control, of some master, and remain his pupil throughout his school career, so that, amid the change of forms and Form-

masters, he may find one intimate relationship that endures. The House-tutor could not only relieve his senior colleague of some of the burden of House management, but would, equally with the House-master, be a tutor to half the boys of the House, seeing his pupils individually at least once a fortnight, and, if possible, arranging that they shall occasionally do for him some special work. Just as the Set-master consults with the Form-master about a boy, so the Form-master would interview the boy's Tutor about his conduct and progress, and it would be within the Tutor's discretion to refer the case to the Headmaster or deal with it himself.

The Opportunity and Duty of the Form-master.—Houses and Tutors, however, do not prevent the form remaining, in every school, a singularly effective unity for the development of character. Loyalty to a Form, and Form-spirit, do not clash with loyalty to a House and House-spirit, any more than these last need interfere with loyalty to the school as a whole. The smaller patriotism leads up to the greater, and, when boys are grouped together for work, they afford as fine an opportunity to the educator as when they are differently grouped for out-of-school activities. Hence the necessity for retaining the Form-master, who will find a sufficiently wide field for his energy and devotion. It will be his duty to gain an insight into the temperament and powers of each of his boys, and to establish a proper tone in his form. Everything will depend upon the decisiveness and strength of his character, upon his judgment, tact, and courtesy, and, above all, upon his equal treatment of all boys, and encouragement among them of a manly spirit of equality. His own loyalty to the school, which will differ as day from night if he is working with, and for, a personal leader, and not under the control of mere official regulations, will in turn inspire his boys with loyalty to their form. In education, after all, personality is the thing that chiefly matters, and that school alone is wisely organised which permits the personality of a keen Form-master to tell greatly. The society of the school should be permeated through and through with the masters' influence, and stimulated by the masters' interest. If each boy is made to feel that he counts for something in his school's prosperity, that his all-round welfare is very much at the heart of those who teach him, he will, from higher motives than self-interest, be led to do his best and play the game. If a boy is ill, his Form-master at least should visit him, and everything is to be gained from getting to know a boy's parents and home environment. But in this connection we cannot do better than quote from the customs actually in

force at the Manchester Grammar School. "If a boy fails to understand something in class, or has missed something through absence, an odd ten minutes given at the end of school will be much appreciated. There are numberless ways in which a Form-master may show individual interest. In particular, a master [or tutor] should see that every boy who is physically fit, or not debarred by distance of domicile, should take part in the school games, and, if he cannot swim, at once begin to learn. A form [or house] list may be posted up, showing what each boy does in this connection, and school societies should be supported in the same way. In junior forms, especially in forms containing a considerable percentage of new boys, it is well for the Form-master, at the first lesson, to go through the school rules in class, and make clear what they mean. The Form-master should inquire by what train a boy comes to school and goes home, so that he may know exactly what it involves if a boy is detained after school."

The Task of the Teacher.—With regard to the teaching side of a master's work, it is certain that its effectiveness will chiefly depend upon the teacher's continuing to be himself a learner, and keeping alive in his own breast the intellectual zeal which he is appointed to inspire in others. But another important condition of success, especially in dealing with the young, will be an adequate knowledge of child-psychology and adolescent development. According to Dr. Stanley Hall, the little boy requires discipline in writing, reading, spelling, verbal memory, manual training, singing, drawing, arithmetic, and the oral methods of foreign languages. Eye-gate and ear-gate should both be opened wide, but the eye should more often be rested, and the ear trained by stories, acting, and vivid readings, since a boy learns to write by hearing and reading, rather than by writing. And Dr. Hall goes on to warn us that excessive explanation "slows down intuition and enfeebles the ultimate vigour of reason," and that if, with pupils over twelve, "we amplify and morselise too much, we starve and retard the soul, now all insight and receptivity." The master, he tells us, should sow seed to be reaped in the far future, rather than aim at a cut-and-dried product for examination purposes, since the power of the adolescent to appreciate and apprehend is far beyond his power to express. Such warning from an expert is valuable, and the need for it in England is not slight. If we listen to it, we shall avoid the over-activity of the master and the resultant listless passivity of the pupil, the rule of "talk and chalk," which has hitherto ruined Elementary Education (except in country

schools, where inadequate staffing necessitates leaving part of the children to their own resources) and which is a menace to our Secondary Schools to-day. We shall, instead, cultivate all possible co-operation of the boys in working out every problem, drawing from them what they know and guiding their own efforts to know more, rather than do all the thinking for them, and delude ourselves with the hope that they have followed with intelligent interest the processes of a maturer mind, and appropriated its results. And, if we aim at encouraging originality and initiative, we shall, *pace* our friends of the Left Wing, refrain from elucidating every difficulty, before telling boys to write an exercise or prepare a piece of translation. We shall, with due regard for their age, insist on their doing their own thinking, even when the subject is difficult, but we shall be careful to reward grit on the boys' part by showing grit ourselves, and returning their work corrected, at whatever personal inconvenience, as soon as possible after it is written, while the boys are still keen about the problem they have tackled. If work is corrected in school, we shall have the common sense to let each boy correct his own, in which alone he can be interested, and develop his honour by trusting it, without omitting to go through his corrections afterwards to see that they are right. In writing a fair copy, we shall prefer to embody the best work of the form, rather than dictate something ideally fair but far beyond the form's reach. Above all, we shall prepare beforehand what we mean to say and do in class, in order that our mind may be free to make the most of the subject and of each boy. In the words of Mr. Paton, "The master's great object will be to keep in touch with his boys, to start from what they already know, and to take them with him from point to point, with strides no longer than their own."

The Gospel of Hard Work.—While we shall carefully refrain from overstraining the younger boys, remembering such attested experience as that of Denmark, where it is found that the boy fresh from the Village School, who has worked only eighteen hours a week (six every other day), outstrips in the Higher School his comrades who have been over-pressed in the junior forms, we shall not be content with a minimum of effort when bodily strength is more mature. When work is made interesting, boys will cease to view it as a necessary evil, and will easily assimilate knowledge which they have attacked with appetite. Rewards and punishments, to-day excessive, will then assume their proper proportions, and will be used and not abused. Hard and accurate work, however, will remain the essence of school-training: make

work as pleasant as you like, but see that the work is there. The late Prof. Paulsen was not alone in his fears of some of the tendencies of the age when he wrote, " My advice is to return to the *educatio strenua*, the serious and severe education of earlier days, and to give the go-by to the theorists of over-pressure and mawkishness. Three great Imperatives are the eternal guiding stars of true education : (1) learn to obey, (2) learn to exert yourself, (3) learn to deny yourself and overcome your desires."

The Need for Suitable Stimulus to Industry.—We shall, however, boy-nature being what it is, while insisting on these Imperatives, facilitate industry by every honest artifice and every available stimulus. With little boys we shall not despise the old-time custom of " standing round " and " taking places," since it encourages mental keenness and relieves the bodily passivity so repulsive to all young animals. At times, too, we shall be Jesuitical enough to reward attention with rival camps of Romans and Carthaginians, two captains picking sides, and each camp in turn assaulting the enemy with questions on the subject-matter of the lesson ; and taking captive those who fail to answer. Mr. Francis Storr says somewhere that, in England, we spend our time in marking, not making, progress, but even marks have their place if they are made to keep it, and it is both natural and right that a boy should wish periodically to be informed of the effect of his application, or lack of it, on his position in the form. Certainly his parents greatly appreciate such information, and have a just claim to know how their boy is doing. All this means marks, and weekly or fortnightly order-cards for home signature, and bi-terminal reports, the burden of all of which to the master is perhaps less excessive than the complaints it sometimes occasions, and is at least a burden indispensable to school efficiency. It also makes for industry and good behaviour among the boys, if they know that their Conduct, Diligence, and Progress are recorded for all time in the School's Book of Life.

The Schoolmaster's Reward.—After every possible reduction of teaching-hours, the work of the master who does his duty in the light of our best traditions will always be exigent, and his leisure scanty. But he will, assuredly, find sufficient consolation in the ideal character and intense humanity of his profession. His career will lie among young and generous spirits, radiant in their dawning energy, who repay any small show of interest, or insignificant act of kindness, with a warm and lasting gratitude that makes its recipient ashamed of having done so little to deserve it,

and who, when once their confidence is won, will support and trust through thick and thin, with a dog-like fidelity and affection. The life of a schoolmaster who is a lover of boys and dogs (for English boys, in spite of the judgment of Gregory the Great, are more akin to dogs than angels), will, it is true, be hard but it will also be singularly happy. Thackeray knew something about human nature. Let us conclude by quoting what he says of boys:[1] "Oh, the chubby cheeks, clean collars, glossy new raiment, beaming faces, glorious in youth—fit *tueri cœlum*—bright with truth, and mirth, and honour! To see a hundred boys marshalled in a chapel or old hall; to hear their sweet fresh voices when they chant, and look in their brave calm faces; I say, does not the sight and sound of them smite you, somehow, with a pang of exquisite kindness?"

DISCIPLINE

A Recent Complaint of the Indiscipline of To-day.—In a recent number of *School* (June 1908) a candid friend of the Public Schools, who veiled an outspoken personality under the pseudonym of "Œdipus," devoted a few columns to setting forth their "weak spots," and he found them mainly in modern discipline, or rather, in the decay of true discipline. The modern Headmaster, he argued, is the victim of circumstances. Anxious to keep the numbers up, and to represent that everything is for the best in the best of all possible schools, he allows no reports to go forth save in laudatory, or, at any rate, non-condemnatory, terms, and so, by hoodwinking the parents, retains their sons. Moral suasion has ousted the cane, and, though the prefect may do what he likes with the rod, because no boy will complain of him, no master may touch it, for fear of letters home. But moral suasion and friendly talks are, in the opinion of this Mentor, ineffective hypocrisies, by which schoolmasters salve their consciences while they let things slide. But worse still remains, when we hear that "popularity is the breath of the pedagogic nostril," the result of which is that indiscipline is rebuked from the pulpit on Sunday, because such a rebuke breaks no bones, and ignored or condoned on Monday, because it does not do to fall foul of a member of the First XV. The "just beast" makes but rare appearances nowadays, and we are given to understand that the old master, whom the boys believed to be their natural enemy,

[1] In *Roundabout Papers*, "On a Peal of Bells."

was a more efficient man than his successor, who tries to be a friend, and ends by being a toady. Effeminacy is encouraged, and brutality is no longer allowed. Schoolboys no longer fight. They are nursed in the "preparatory" schools, to be mollycoddled later in matrons' boudoirs, and to end their career in serious reflections on waistcoats and the right pomade. Finally, the boasted prefect-system is too often but one more sham amid so many others: we "trust," and our trust is abused. We take care not to find out, and shut our eyes; and we remain wilfully blind to the truth that, as prefect, a boy has necessarily less influence than as a free-lance, whose words, when he did speak up for the right, were words of weight. In this topsy-turvy world of English Education the men are trying to be boys, and the boys are trying to be men, and the result is too frequently a fine blend of inefficiency, indiscipline, hypocrisy, and sham.

Our Answer to this Complaint.—The writer has at any rate spoken plainly, but the majority of those who know English schools will probably condole with him that his experience has been so unfortunate. Such a school as he describes is a bad school, for which intellectually and morally there is nothing to be said, which could not go on for long without disaster, and which would be incapable of producing men of truth and candour. The only answer is, that such men *are* produced by the Public Schools, and that therefore these schools cannot be so bad as they are here painted. *Corruptio optimi pessima*, we know, and in this article the failure or misdirection of every reform is seized upon, and stated to be characteristic of the whole. Masters have ceased to be brutes, and boys have ceased to be savages; for they were in old days, as they are now, in large measure what their masters made them. Moral suasion is more reasonable than the cane, but in the hands of the weak it may easily decline into the shirking of duty and the hunting after popularity. Reports may be made euphemistic, but it is right that they should temper truth with mercy: one of the last things that the Assistant-master learns, is that his unqualified condemnations are disastrous, and his epigrams invariably futile, because in both cases they are resented, and in neither case do they suggest any hope, or any way, of reform. Finally, corrupt prefects may be doing no good either to themselves or to the school; but, as a matter of plain truth, they are not often corrupt. They nearly always rise to face responsibility, and create their own characters while they guide others. At the stage where the educational systems of other countries seem to fail most clearly, English education

scores its most decided success, and it owes this mainly to the prefect-system, which, like every human institution, is capable of abuse, but nevertheless rarely fails, except under weak masters and among disorganised boys.

Humanitarian Tendencies of the Age.—It is true to say that there is, and has been now for a long time in progress, a reaction against the rule of the rod, and that unbending discipline supposed to have been characteristic of the days of our fathers and grandfathers. It is certain that the old severity did not produce good discipline, if half the stories are true; it may have produced hardness, callousness, and the courage of endurance, but it was never the cause of willing co-operation, keen work, and friendship. Orbilius and all his tribe rest in the grave, unwept and unsung, and the change has been due to many influences. Greater knowledge and interest in education have done their share: it required little professional skill to drive the Latin Grammar in with the birch. Better results were obtained by less vigorous methods, and parents showed, and naturally showed, more confidence in schools whose master seemed not to be behind the humanitarian progress of their day. Something was due to the whole change in the feeling of a nation, which in the "'fifties" shut the children in the nursery-attics, and nowadays plies them with cake in the drawing-room. Some schoolmasters learned from Pestalozzi and his followers, who taught expressly that the relations between master and pupil, especially so far as discipline is concerned, must be established and regulated by love. And so we have passed to the present stage, in which it is said that no one but the son of a duke may be caned with impunity.

The Danger of Exaggerating such Tendencies in Schools.—Certainly it is true that there lies danger here, and the *laudator temporis acti* does good service if he prevents schoolmasters from treading too far this path of softness. All efforts to make teaching better lead the same way: the more efficient it is, the less work is demanded of the pupil. The gospel of "interest" is preached with insistency, and if a class is inattentive and lazy, nearly all Inspectors and most Headmasters are inclined to blame the master. Teaching must be made lively, and of itself hold attention: all doses must be coated with sugar. There are abroad in the land many well-meaning people, who have long dabbled in the theory, but not in the practice, of education, who believe that all that is natural in little boys and girls is good, and all that is bad comes there from faulty training in the nursery, the home, or the class-room. The organism is, in any case, perfect:

it is we who are responsible for a faulty environment. But under whatever ægis of great educational prophet, or profound psychologist, these doctrines are advanced, let schoolmasters lift up their voices steadily and without hesitation, and state that their truth is limited. It is a truism, perhaps a trifle musty, to say that there is no royal road to learning; but it is time that this particular truism should lose a little of its mustiness by being brought into the open air. There is not a man who has attained eminence in any intellectual activity who is not conscious of having passed through, in his preparation, periods of long, dull, hard work. The modern boy is no more afraid of hard work than his father was, and it is no use for educationists of any kind to pretend that anybody can learn without drudgery. Let the drudgery be reduced to a minimum, but let us never blink the fact that it must be faced.

The Need and Value of Insistence on Hard Work.—Moreover, in this very drudgery properly used, in this forcing of the attention to a difficult, and, it may be, a distasteful, subject, we have in our hands a fine educational instrument, which will make itself felt both in brain-power and in character. It will be admitted that not the least important task of the educator is to train the will, to produce will-power. What, then, is "will"? It is defined by Prof. James when he writes (*Principles of Psychology*, vol. ii. p. 561), "The essential achievement of the will, in short, when it is most 'voluntary,' is to *attend* to a difficult object, and hold it fast before the mind." But it is clear that, if we are to provide boys only with what they like, and to present all things in the most easy and inviting aspect, we are casting aside what may be a most valuable factor in the building of their character. This determination to master a difficult subject, and to endure the whole toilsome process that leads to ultimate victory, has somewhere been called "the conduct of the understanding." Nothing of more value can be acquired by any boy. In every school it should be the primary maxim that boys must work, and, if they do not, must be made to work. The discipline of the master will in the end produce self-discipline. Let it not be forgotten that Pestalozzi himself failed in the end at Yverdun, when he tried to deal with numbers. "In vain did he send for the children in turn to his study for friendly talks, and employ caresses and exhortations when he met them. They still called him 'Father Pestalozzi,' it is true, but he no longer knew them as a father should know his children. And thus the discipline of affection slowly disappeared, without being replaced by the more or less

military discipline of the school, and the home-life at Yverdun soon developed into a sort of ill-regulated public life."[1] The natural boy recognises no categorical imperative to work, and the discipline of the school must supply work with sufficient sanctions, until he is strong enough to legislate for himself.

Self-Government among the Boys: Dangers of such a Republic.—The present generation, which has seen the steady transference of power into the hands of the democracy, has not failed to see a kindred movement in the schools. So far as democratic ideas of government have affected discipline, they have done so in two directions, in proposals to abolish the autocracy of the Headmaster and to govern through a Council of the Staff, and in proposals to give the boys a much larger share in their own management. Those who advocate the latter plan, argue that the boys, when they grow up, will go forth to govern themselves, and that it is by far the best thing to let them begin at once, and learn how to do it. Under these circumstances, they will proceed to elect their own prefects and their own captains of games by a vote of the whole school, and, within limits, wherever possible, will pass by popular voice the regulations which are to govern the conduct of the school. To us this seems a pestilent heresy, worthy of a new Education Act *De Hæretico Comburendo.* It is true that these boys, when they grow up, will each of them, in all probability, exercise at rare intervals under the Septennial Act an infinitesimally fractional part of sovereignty, but they will not exercise it any the more wisely because they have learned to vote, and to study popularity-mongers, at school. It used to be regarded as a certain truth—and no reason has ever been advanced to the contrary—that in order to rule, man must learn to obey. It was a truth recognised in the Greek democracies, though they never practised it with conspicuous success. And it is essential that this truth should not be obscured in the schools of the English democracy, for they are its last stronghold. That democracy is faced with a task such as never people had to bear before, and, in the face of the ominous warnings of history, is called upon to show that a democracy can govern a mighty empire. It can only be done by self-discipline and self-sacrifice, and of these qualities little appears in any class in the country which has not been trained in its better Secondary Schools. If the lesson of unquestioning obedience to orders ceases to be taught there, to what quarter shall we cry for help?

Government by the Staff: Why Unsuitable to Schools.—Government by the staff, on the other hand, on the supposition

[1] *Pestalozzi: His Life and Work*, Guimps, Translated by Russell, p. 280.

that with them will reside the final absolute voice upon all matters, is not democracy in any sense of the word, but oligarchy. This reflection does not decide the question whether it is good or bad, but it is well to remember the fact, when the proposal is advanced, as it usually is, by a liberal and democratic enthusiast. But no battalion could be commanded in action by a committee of officers, nor any battleship fought by a caucus of lieutenants, however competent. The conduct of a school is not so strenuous a form of activity as these, but it is essentially of the same type. Decisions are continually needed upon small and great matters, and they must be clear and rapid: the decisions of a committee are neither. A school must be a unity, the expression of a single self: it is hard to see how a council of masters could be always united, or always consistent. In schools it is better to be wrong, and stick to it, than to be half right and half wrong, and to shilly-shally. Presumably the Headmaster would be Chairman of the Council, but his responsibility and his authority would be gone; and the staff, being human, would continually disagree. Such proposals are the natural result, when Assistant-masters are reduced to the position of nonentities in the government of a school, and when Headmasters who are not conspicuous for their success in directing policy, are not rare. But the problem cannot be solved rightly on these lines, and five minutes' impartial thought ought to convince a master of experience that discipline cannot well be maintained among the staff, or the boys, on such a constitution.

Corporal Punishment: its Justification and the Limits to be put on its Use.—If it be granted, as seems to be generally agreed to-day, that corporal punishment is to be retained in schools, it becomes a matter of nice argument whether power of administration should be allowed to all masters, or confined to the Headmaster or his representative. The cane is the *ultima ratio* of discipline in some cases: its infliction should be rare, but it should be possible, and, under definite circumstances, certain. How often is heard in common-rooms the grumble, "If I only had a cane in my room, just to lie on my desk; if the boys only knew it was there, I should never want to use it, and inattention would be a thing of the past." Or again, "If the boys only knew that they would get a cut across the shoulders for silly pieces of disorder like this, or stupid idleness like that, they would never occur." But in the days when Assistant-masters possessed the cane, and used it, boys were quite as inattentive, and quite as disorderly. There are some, and they are not a few,

who can remember classes of perverse boyhood in which it was a matter of honour and glory to provoke a caning from "old X." Such a punishment carried no stigma, and the fun was worth the pain. The grumble is only too frequently made by men who do not desire the trouble of teaching, and who are anxious to reap, by coercion, fruits which they will not be at pains to gather by clear and interesting exposition. The main fallacy is that such punishment should be immediate, and that the rod should follow the fault with the instantaneity of cause and effect. But we are inclined to hold that corporal punishment should never be immediate, and that the more judicially it is awarded, the better. Masters are human; their tempers can be hasty, and their patience short. Moreover, if the cane is to carry disgrace, it must not be common. Finally, and in especial application to day schools, it must be remembered that every caning is, in the eye of the law, an assault, for which presumably the Headmaster must make himself responsible; and since in very few schools of any size can it be said that all members of the staff may equally be trusted with the power of the rod, it is natural that the difficulty should be solved by committing the power to none. For given to all or none it must be, for obvious reasons; serious, and certain, and judicial, must the infliction be, or it will not carry the necessary disgrace, or inspire the necessary fear; rare also, or the victims will become hardened and indifferent. For all these reasons, it seems wise that corporal punishment should be inflicted by the Headmaster alone, by his hands or another's, but in any case on his sole authority.

Minor Punishments.—It is unnecessary to enter in detail on a discussion of the minor punishments adopted in schools to secure the ideal of good order and good work. In these respects also, the trend of the day is towards greater leniency. Long detentions, which destroy a boy's chance of exercise, dull his brain, and depress his spirits, are no longer in vogue. A quarter of a century ago, it was common for a boy to see his half-holidays mortgaged for weeks in advance. Small wonder that he became a fatalist, regarded his free time as lost before it came, and enjoyed himself while he could. Long impositions requiring three pens at once, and other wonderful mechanical inventions of the school-boy genius, are also in limbo, though the stupid punishment of "lines" is far from being as dead as it should be. For the master it is so easy and so simple, that he forgets that it is also so senseless and so barren—and yet half a minute's reflection would, in any case, enable him to substitute a punishment

which would take equal time, require some intellectual effort, and do the boy a little good. Of detentions and impositions, punishment-drills and extra-attendances, every school has its own system, and reaches its end by various ways.

Partnership with Boys in Keeping Order.—In English schools, probably at the present moment the best reform that can be pressed is the more extended partnership of the boys with the master in keeping discipline. Hitherto, in this country the master has done too much, the boys too little, and the class-room has been regarded too exclusively as a field of battle in which either the teachers or the pupils will prevail. Yet nothing is more certain than that disorder, small and great, is mainly due to the superabundant energy and spirits of the young barbarians, and that the best way to deal with them is to give as many as possible something to do. It is excellent to appoint two form-monitors in every form, to look after small matters of order and to be responsible for the good name of their form, to have two more responsible for the tidiness of the room, another for the blackboard, another for the windows, others again for writing on the board under the eye of the master. In all these ways classes can be made to interest themselves in their own conduct, and so, almost unconsciously, to become orderly and keen.

The True Principles of Discipline.—In other words, they are brought over to the side of authority, and into sympathy with discipline. That is the whole secret. There are two kinds of discipline: the one, which is not the higher form, prison or military discipline, governing in the last resort by fear, and requiring for all orders unquestioning, immediate, and mechanical obedience; the other and higher kind, that willing, intelligent, and even eager co-operation, which can be secured if only the right methods are followed. For our part we believe the true principles to be these:

(1) **Punctuality.**—First, that all masters should be rigidly punctual, from the Headmaster to the youngest junior on the staff: nothing betrays the slack school so surely as loitering, late beginnings, and uncertain endings.

(2) **Sure and Adequate Punishment.**—Secondly, that punishments, when inflicted, should be adequate and certain. Every boy knows when he has done wrong: he has not yet learned the art of deceiving himself. The voice of conscience within him approves his master, even when his tongue is most voluble in excuse and self-defence. And if, with a weak master, he finds his plausibility prevail, from that time his opinion of that particular man has received a shock from which it does not recover, and he will be found telling his cronies in privacy

"that he never looked at the book, but he jawed to old So-and-so about how awfully hard it was, and he let him off." Let the punishments, then, be certain, and, so far as possible, just.

(3) **Explanation of Rules.**—Thirdly, let the boys know the rules thoroughly, and have every chance of seeing them. Let them be explained. We have high warrant for knowing that boys are always reasonable, and that it is very seldom that they protest against any regulation that is clearly put before them.

(4) **The Stimulus of Reward.**—Finally, it is better to reward than to punish. The posting of excellently written work on the class-room board will usually do more to improve the standard of writing than detention. The sending up of good work, to be read and initialled by the Headmaster, will stimulate a whole class. The award of merit half-holidays for a high average mark gained by a whole form during a period of several weeks, will bring all the popular opinion on to the side of the workers—which all the detentions in the world will fail to do. It is not the highest of motives to which you appeal, says the purist, but the answer is that we are dealing with the immature. Boys cannot be expected to be better than men, and the men are few of whom it can be said that their actions are dictated by a sense of duty in all cases, and not by the hope of private reward. We have to handle a strange and elusive material, adolescent, quickly responsive, trustful, easily won, and as easily offended. We can hold it down with the strong hand, as our forefathers did; but we can do better. We can bring it through the state of subjection to law, to the higher field of freedom, and train a school to will its own laws, and feel them no limitation on its liberty. We can do this, if we show ourselves the boys' friends and companions, quick to encourage, and not slow to praise; but equally decided in our rebukes when offence has been committed, and certain in our punishments when these are just and earned.

CHAPTER II

TEACHING METHODS

MORAL AND RELIGIOUS TEACHING

I APPROACH the subject which has been entrusted to me with much diffidence—partly because of its extreme importance and my own sense of unworthiness to deal with it, partly because what I write will be the outcome mainly of personal experience, only very slightly modified by reading, and perhaps to a somewhat greater degree by casual discussion with other members of the profession.

To dismiss in a few sentences the question whether moral instruction should, or should not, be conveyed formally and as a separate item in the school curriculum, may be audacious, but my audacity will rise to that height. I flatly decline to admit that a lesson in morals, as such, is desirable. Moral instruction—in my belief—is best conveyed in school hours incidentally, and out of school by example and practice. No teacher can be reckoned as otherwise than worthless who has not in his mind the development of character on the right lines as the main object of his career; it follows that the basis of all his teaching and all his work in and out of school is moral. Formal ethical teaching in such hands would be unnecessary, and at the same time it is clear that it would be perfectly absurd to invite a teacher who does not rest his work on such a basis, to give formal lessons in ethics. I will therefore lay it down as a postulate that moral teaching is not to be given as a separate lesson in school.

On the other hand, nothing but good can result from the teacher's clearing his own mind, and informing his own judgment, by making himself acquainted with the various aspects of this most important subject and the speculations of the moral philosophers of all ages.

Our subject, however, is not only moral, but religious teaching.

From one point of view the two must be taken together, for religion without morality is a sorry conception. But it is not possible to ignore the fact that morality may, and does, exist without religion; a man may observe the second table of the Decalogue in the spirit as well as in the letter, and ignore the first table altogether. He may be a thoroughly good citizen, and not a Christian at all, even in name. It is hardly necessary to say that a teacher whose morality is divorced from all religious belief must find his difficulties greatly increased. For—to take the Christian point of view—such a man must lose touch with the spiritual side of his pupils' natures—a side which, in spite of the habitual reserve of the British boy, is capable of being moulded far more easily and far more deeply than those who know little of boy-life would believe. Such a man cannot appeal to what—again from the Christian point of view—are the highest of all motives for right conduct. Such a man, however valuable he may be as an imparter of knowledge, cannot be—once more from the Christian point of view—a teacher, an educator, in the fullest sense of the word.

I will therefore lay it down as a second postulate that the religious teaching should be in the hands of those, and those only, who, to whatever religious body they may belong, do profess their belief in the cardinal doctrines of the Christian faith. In other words, the profession of morality apart from a religious—a Christian—basis does not qualify a man to convey religious instruction. Religious teaching is deprived of all living force if the teacher himself is not convinced that what he is teaching is true, and that it is of the very gravest importance. If he is not so convinced, he cannot throw *himself* into his teaching, and the result of that inability is utter failure. This may appear to some a truism, but it is at any rate a truism which is by no means universally acted upon. No teacher, then, should be expected or desired, or even permitted, to give religious instruction which he has no qualification to give, any more than a man unqualified in other subjects would be allowed to teach them. But in the matter of religious qualification a teacher's own conscience must be the main arbiter. It is far more important that the teaching should be sincere than that it should be uniform: its value depends upon its spirit rather than upon its formulæ, and boys will feel the force of sincerity far more than they will be perplexed or repelled by discrepancies in details.

So much for the teacher—at least the school-teacher. But the school-teacher's work in this sphere of morals and religion

is rendered infinitely more or less effective according to the influences brought to bear upon the boy in his home. And though this book is primarily concerned with the school only, it is impossible for one whose life has been passed, as boy and master, entirely in three great public schools since the year 1867 (except during his university career), to refrain from a word of earnest appeal to parents. It is certain that, during these forty years, great changes have taken place in the ordinary every-day life of the classes from which the pupils in our great schools come. One result of these changes has been to make, what may be called the old-fashioned puritanical views of life and conduct, unpopular. Sunday (once called Sabbath) observance has been vastly modified ; family prayers, grace before meals, the reading of the Bible, are not so common as they were ; the sacred duty of amusing oneself is more universally regarded. Life, it may be said, is less simple and less austere than it was. This comes, no doubt, of the natural reaction against the extreme views held in past generations, views which tended to stamp many harmless pleasures as lowering, if not sinful. But unfortunately the pendulum is swinging too far in the opposite direction, and though there are countless homes in which the children are brought up to love God and their neighbour, and to think of unselfish service as their ideal, yet in countless other homes little or nothing is said or thought of these things, and the boys who come to us from such homes are almost completely ignorant of what they should have been taught by the loving care of those nearest and dearest to them—their best instincts stifled or undeveloped, their ideals selfish or mean or low, their principles dependent upon their surroundings.

We have to take them as we find them. A son of Christian parents, of not less than average intelligence, who at the age of thirteen and a half cannot repeat, much less write out, the Lord's Prayer correctly ; a son of Christian parents who quotes the Fourth Commandment thus : "Six days shall thy neighbour do all that thou hast to do, and the seventh day is the Sabbath of the Lord thy God ; in it thou shalt do no work "—such boys supply typical instances of home neglect. They ought to be far more uncommon than they are. From every point of view it is of the utmost importance that parents should be awake to the gravity of their responsibilities in this matter.

Well, we have to take the boys as we find them. What are the available opportunities for religious teaching? What methods? What materials? What objects?

Opportunities

(1) **The School Chapel.**—Boarding schools have, in almost every instance, chapels of their own, in which services are held and sermons preached on Sundays, whereas no such opportunity is given in the case of most day schools. Where there is a school chapel, the preacher has a great opportunity. Boys are very good listeners, and very keen, if not always discriminating, critics. They do not like to be "talked down to," but it does not follow that they will appreciate abstruse doctrine or impassioned eloquence. What they care for is genuine earnestness, well under control, knowledge of the conditions of boy-life, shown but not obtruded, instruction conveyed without pedantry, practical exhortation driven home in a rational way, religion treated as a part of daily life: in fact, they display much the same tastes in boyhood as they will in maturer years. But here and there a preacher—a prophet—will be found who reaches to loftier heights, and to him they will respond with something like enthusiasm.

In schools where the Headmaster is in Holy Orders much of the preaching falls naturally to his share, and where this is the case he can, if he chooses, arrange his sermons more or less on serial lines. For this plan there is much to be said. By so doing he can at any rate ensure a certain continuity of teaching, though there may be a loss of spontaneity. And here be it suggested that every encouragement should be given to any lay master, duly qualified, who feels that he has a message to give to a wider audience than his own form, be he Head or Assistant. The ranks of clerical masters are being sadly thinned, and there are many laymen who, without having a vocation to the full duties implied by Holy Orders, can and do take a valuable part in the pulpit teaching of a school.

The indirect influence exercised by beautiful architecture, hearty services, and good music, need only be alluded to here.

(2) Next comes the so-called **Divinity Lesson.** This is universal in all schools of the type considered in this book. Its value depends almost entirely on the teacher. It may have no more effect on the spiritual side of the boy's nature than a quadratic equation has, or it may help to open his mind to the highest influences. Of the *matter* of the lesson more will be said hereafter; its *object* may range from the correct parsing of verbs in the Greek Testament to the attainment of some degree of spiritual insight into the teaching of the Founder of Christianity.

(3) Thirdly, there is the **Preparation for Confirmation,**

and the subsequent instruction of communicants. These two belong, of course, to Church of England schools exclusively, but in those schools they are of such importance that no apology is needed for considering them. Forty or fifty years ago, the preparation for confirmation was often of a very perfunctory character, and in most cases was entirely devoid of the personal element. Boys were required to learn their catechism, or possibly they heard some explanations and instructions given in a formal way in class. But it was an exception to find any sympathetic individual teaching. All honour is due to Selwyn, Abraham, and others less known to fame, who, in their young and obscure days, saw and seized the opportunity which confirmation gives for sound and systematic instruction in doctrine, combined with practical interest in the individual character.

In these days the plan followed is probably substantially the same in all schools. The Headmaster is responsible for the general instruction of the candidates. This he conveys as he pleases, either to the whole body or to smaller classes or to individuals; he often delegates to house-masters, or others appointed by him, certain parts of the instruction—indeed, in many cases, the subordinate has a free hand as regards the amount of teaching he may choose to give. But the responsibility rests with the Headmaster; in this connection he is the pastor, the chief shepherd, and he must look after his flock. It is, therefore, of the utmost importance that he should have at least one private interview with each of his candidates for confirmation. No part of his work can be of more value than this; nothing should be allowed to interfere with it. It is on that occasion, and, speaking generally, on that occasion only, that the individual boy is brought into direct and personal relation with his Headmaster in a matter which concerns him as a human being, and not only or mainly as a schoolboy; it is on that occasion that reserve is almost always dispelled, and mutual confidence takes its place. The subsequent instruction of communicants is a matter which hardly falls within the scope of this article. Suffice it to say that it is not only desirable but greatly needed, not merely to carry on the teaching of the confirmation class a stage further, but to aid perseverance. Attendance at such instruction should, in the opinion of the writer, be encouraged rather than demanded.

Methods and Materials

We now revert to the "Divinity Lesson," with which the great majority of teachers are concerned. What is to be its

subject-matter? The Bible; in Church schools, the Prayer-Book; in some forms, at any rate, the elements of Church History; the lives of good and great men and women.

(1) **The Bible.**—(a) *Old Testament.*—This is to many a difficulty. The researches of modern critics are still far from being complete; but it has been proved to demonstration that the simple belief of our forefathers in the literal accuracy of much of the Old Testament can no longer be maintained, and that we must not expect to find in it a storehouse of scientific or historic truth. How far, it may be asked, is the teacher to put this forward? We answer that the teacher must at all hazards be sincere. He need not go out of his way to lay stress upon inconsistencies and inaccuracies, but he is bound to explain, at any rate to boys who are old enough to understand him, the composite character of many of the books, the varying extent of the human element in their structure, and the progressive character of God's revelation of Himself to man.

In spite, however, of these necessary excursions into the field of criticism, there remains on the positive side a vast magazine of material at our disposal. The Old Testament is not only designed to show forth God's dealings with a particular nation, dealings which were eventually to result in the coming of Jesus the Messiah, with its consequences of infinite importance to mankind, but incidentally, so to speak, it provides innumerable ethical and religious lessons, whether the subject of study be the lives and characters portrayed, or the poetic and prophetic books. No teacher need be at a loss for material for his Old Testament lesson, nor need he have any apprehensions as to the effect of *honest* critical comments, made to elucidate difficulties, and not to display erudition or perplex the simple-minded.

(b) *New Testament.*—The same remarks as to criticism may be applied here, *mutatis mutandis.* It goes without saying that, where Greek is learnt, the New Testament lesson should include the study of the text in the original, though not in such a way that the subject-matter is kept in the background.

It is impossible to write in any but the most general terms as to the way in which the subject-matter should be treated. "Out of the abundance of the heart the mouth speaketh"—and there is the beginning and the end of the matter. The teacher's bent may be historical or psychological; he may be well versed in the results of archæological research or of textual criticism; he may be interested in early Church history or in the personality of St. Peter or St. Paul; he may

be absorbed in the literary problems connected with the Fourth Gospel; he may be full of searchings of heart as to the evidence bearing on the miracles of Jesus Christ and His apostles—even the greatest of all miracles, the Resurrection of our Lord: but in any case his lessons will only tell in so far as they reflect himself. He may reproduce what he likes, he may give no end of information and advice, but moral and spiritual force must be absent from his teaching unless it is in the man himself. And what is the value of New Testament teaching, if it is not to have a true and lasting influence upon moral and spiritual growth?

(2) **The Prayer-Book and Church History.**—A few words must suffice on these subjects. Blank and unblushing ignorance of the main events in the history of our Church, both before and after the Reformation, is woefully common. Without some elementary information on the subject, the contents of the book of Common Prayer are barely intelligible, and it is the obvious duty of every teacher to make sure that his pupils have some slight notion of the history, as well as of the meaning, of the prayers and praises and creeds which they hear or recite in public worship. It is an obvious duty, but it is by no means as commonly performed as it ought to be.

(3) **Biographical Teaching.**—In dealing with young boys especially, this method has been found very helpful. Outside the Bible are to be found the names of many great and good men and women conspicuous for the Christian virtues. As an occasional change from the ordinary routine the teacher may give an account of some such person with excellent results.

There are certain "Shibboleths" which have been intentionally avoided in this article. It is the belief of the writer that no teachers worth the name will consent to be muzzled; that a teacher who feels "Definite Church Teaching" to be essential will not be able to exclude such teaching from his "Divinity Lesson"; that a teacher who is content with "Undenominational teaching" will not easily be forced to deal with Denominational formulas; and that in either case the cause of moral and religious education is best served by allowing the man to follow his bent.

Object

This one word more, and I have done. Every teacher, to whatever school of religious thought he may belong, ought to keep constantly before his mind the supreme importance of training

his pupils to be good *citizens*. The loftiest moral aims, the noblest religious aspirations, have this in common, that they are unselfish. When we talk of the "greatest happiness of the greatest number" we are only saying in other words that we are "every one members one of another." The ethical ideal of "personal service" is not unaptly expressed in Christian language—love of God and love of our neighbour.

I wish to add that in my opinion the system of religious instruction which prevails at Eton has in it greater capacities than any other with which I am acquainted. I append a sketch of it. The tutorial system, which does not exist elsewhere in precisely the same form, makes the system easily practicable there, but it might be adapted to some extent to other conditions.

At Eton every boy belongs to a School Form or "Division," passing from one master to another as he goes up the school. Every boy also has a Tutor, under whose charge he remains during the whole of his school career.

With his Form- or Division-master he has a weekly lesson in Divinity—not on Sunday. On Sunday he has to write three or four pages of answers to "Sunday Questions" set by the Division-master, some of them bearing on the Divinity lesson, others on any subject or subjects which the master may choose. It is left to the boy to find the answers to these questions by the use of books of reference or in other ways, and the value of the exercise depends largely upon the extent to which he assimilates the information thus acquired, and the degree of power of expression which he gains. The exercise may be extremely helpful in both these ways, or it may be almost purely mechanical.

The Tutor has practically a free hand in dealing with that part of the religious instruction which falls to his share. He takes his pupils on Sunday, in two or more classes, arranged according to their place in the school, and he is at liberty to talk or read to them about any subject he may choose. The whole field of religious thought, nay, of serious literature, is open to him, and it is hardly too much to say that the opportunity so given is unique. For, as was remarked above, the Tutor has the charge of his pupil for the whole of his school career, and during those four or five years he can not only cover a very wide extent of ground, but, having free choice of subjects, he can speak of and teach those which are nearest to his heart, none interfering. The result upon a receptive boy is very often, as may be imagined, quite remarkable; on none is the effort wholly wasted.

In conclusion I name certain books, which (in addition to the more obvious works of reference, etc.) I have found of special use in my own experience.

Pastor Agnorum, J. H. Skrine (an astonishingly suggestive book). *Modern Criticism and the Preaching of the Old Testament*, G. Adam Smith. *History of the Hebrews*, E. B. Ottley. *Men of Might*, A. C. Benson and H. F. W. Tatham. *St. Paul, the Traveller and Roman Citizen*, W. M. Ramsay. *Historical Geography of the Holy Land*, G. Adam Smith.

S. R. JAMES.

CHAPTER II

TEACHING METHODS (*continued*)

ENGLISH

ON the results which have hitherto attended the teaching of the mother-tongue in England, there is a rare unanimity both within and without the teaching profession. Unanimity is pleasing in itself, but sadly disheartening when it merely bears witness to failure, as in this case it does. It is agreed that the average boy, even of eighteen or nineteen, when he leaves school, has seldom attained any mastery of his own language, is ignorant of the beauties of his own literature and indifferent to its history, and can seldom write or speak with credit to himself, or with comfort to his audience. The Master of Trinity, speaking at the dinner of the English Association in 1908, told his hearers that in the two English papers set at the Trinity Scholarships examination to a field drawn from the pick of the Public Schools, "there was a very considerable minority whose work it was positively painful to read, for they had no notion whatever of how to write their own tongue, and they had nothing to say. This miserable ignorance and incapacity, he was sorry to say, were chiefly found in those who were candidates in mathematics and the natural sciences, though some candidates in these subjects formed creditable exceptions to the rule." We may safely assert that so long as not the slightest element of culture is demanded and exacted from able mathematicians and scientists, the schools will not seriously attempt to produce it. But the colleges have only to combine and insist upon it, and the scandal will be removed. In itself it is a side-issue, but it throws light on the general position. From the attainments of these boys, admittedly of more than ordinary ability, an estimate can be formed of the average unvarnished product in English of the secondary school, innocent of the polish bestowed by the higher classical forms: let it suffice that the Master of Trinity can refer to it as "miserable ignorance and incapacity."

What, then, are the causes of this deplorable result? In the main, confused beliefs that the subject did not matter,

that it taught itself, that it could not be taught, that *poeta nascitur, non fit*, and other mutually inconsistent impressions, often comfortably existing in the same minds. Add, too, the idea that it was everybody's business to teach English, and the fact that nobody did it. Such attempts as have been made date from 1870 or thereabouts, and have borne no fruit worthy of name hitherto. There was in the first place no great tradition of English teaching, and all masters had to be pioneers. They went to classical masters of the old type as their models, and produced editions of the English classics annotated in the direct style of a Greek-play commentary. Shakespeare was made an excuse for depressing excursions among Anglo-Saxon roots. *Piers Plowman* became food for babes, and the highest poetry was treated merely as a field for philological botany. With such editors the examiners entered gleefully into conspiracy; they neglected the spirit and the style of the author, and the living meaning of his message, for all that might more easily be assessed by marks, until that female candidate for the Locals was produced who stated that she found the notes so interesting that she meant after the examination to read the play itself. Lastly, perhaps the greatest obstacle of all has been, as Mr. Fowler has well said,[1] "the deep-seated Philistinism of the English nation, of the upper classes as much as of the lower, the anti-intellectual influence of the homes from which our boys come, and the anti-intellectual tradition that is stronger than the influence of any master."

In the meantime, in other countries the teaching of the mother-tongue has been attended with much more considerable success. America, for the last half-century, has obviously been confronted with a vital national problem, and has been forced to teach English with the utmost care in order that the original stock might not be submerged. "Some of the work I saw being done," wrote Mr. Fletcher in 1903,[2] "seemed to me most inspiring and likely to be productive of much good. It was not merely that literature was being read, allusions and tricks of style noticed, but the effort was being honestly made to get down to the underlying thought, to estimate its value, and, if necessary, to criticise and modify it." "In the hands of the really fine teachers whom I found engaged in this work, I felt that literature was being made what it ought to be, the means towards real culture of mind and spirit." But really fine teachers are no

[1] *English Literature in Secondary Schools*, by J. H. Fowler, M.A. Leaflet No. 5 of the English Association.

[2] *Mosely Educational Commission Report*, p. 133.

more common in America than here, as indeed the author quoted points out; it is the general average that is so much higher. Dr. Gray, another Commissioner, states[1] that "the teaching of English is remarkably good, and far outstrips anything of which we can boast." "In the upper classes of the secondary schools it is of the most masterly kind, and I have heard women teachers who are certainly not behind men teachers in the power of exciting interest in this most important subject of education."

In Europe the highest level has been beyond question reached in France, and those who desire to study the methods followed in that country and the results achieved cannot do better than study Mr. Hartog's book.[2] From the first the greatest care is bestowed on teaching the mother-tongue. Every boy must plan out his work with elaborate diligence, and must think of the exact meaning of the words which he uses. In writing he may be neither vague nor personal: the beauty he sees he must make others see, the force he feels he must make others feel. He studies, he analyses, he reproduces, he criticises, the classics of his own country, and, as Mr. Hartog says, "the French boy who has not scraped some acquaintance with the prose of Bossuet, Fénelon, Pascal, La Bruyère, Montesquieu, Mme. de Sévigné, Voltaire, Rousseau, Buffon, Diderot, Chateaubriand, Mme. de Staël, George Sand, Michelet, and with the dramas or poems of Corneille, Racine, Molière, Beaumarchais, Victor Hugo, and Lamartine, to say nothing of contemporary authors, is hardly to be found." The general result is that the French boy writes with clear ease and grace, and the only criticisms that can be passed are that too often he says not what he thinks, but what he ought to think, too often prefers the style to the matter, and the letter to the spirit.

Limits of space necessarily forbid any attempt to enter into any detailed description of American and French methods and curricula: they can be easily studied by those who desire the knowledge. The two previous paragraphs have been written merely to emphasise once more the fact that the mother-tongue can be, and is, taught with success in other countries, and can therefore be so taught in England. It is true that we have not here to face the problem of immigration, and the danger of confusion of tongues. It is true that we have not, like our French neighbours, a national

[1] *Mosely Educational Commission Report*, p. 168.

[2] One of the present authors has written a Report on *The Teaching of the Mother-Tongue in France* for the forthcoming volume of Special Reports, issued by the Board of Education.

sense of form and grace, and a quick-witted interest in things intellectual. But with all allowances, is not the difference in the results chiefly explained by the fact that in America and France the mother-tongue is the most important subject in the school curriculum, and in England the least important? Can we expect to succeed in a subject which we slight?

There are signs, very comforting signs, on all sides of an awakening. Not the least among them is the English Association itself, the creation of a date so recent as January 1907, which has already done valuable work in the issue of bulletins and pamphlets, and which forms a rallying-centre for reform and for proselytism. Excellent papers on History and English have been issued by the Board of Education, giving guidance which is general, as it ought to be, but which is also sound and sane. Textbooks and examination papers have alike considerably improved, and an abundance of texts at a cheap rate is now on the market, through the enterprise of publishers and the selection of competent editors. There are reasons for thinking that the great inert mass of the Philistine English nation itself is not so dead to all culture as has been supposed. Reprints of classics command a ready sale; literary societies are more numerous, and more literary, than they were; extension lecturers find more interested audiences. There is a great chance for the secondary schools, if they will rise to it. But let it be plainly said that it is useless to gird at the Philistinism of the nation, if the Philistines in real fact are rather they of our own household, exalting their horn in our own common-rooms. Unless the old form-master system is to go by the board utterly, to the great loss of English schools, the mother-tongue must remain one of the subjects taught by the form-master, and success in teaching it demands both knowledge and interest in the teacher. Those who know intimately the staffs of typical schools will confess that here lies the danger. Masters capable of teaching English well are self-made, and never the products of their school and University education: they are therefore rare. Much more common, unfortunately, are Mr. Benson's possibly apocryphal friends, who took away for the holidays, to cure themselves of their worst faults, treatises on Bridge and Golf. Reform, then, let it be plainly stated, must begin with the teachers, and there must be steady pressure, both from Headmasters and the Board and from public opinion, to make schoolmasters study their own literature and language. When that supreme difficulty is once surmounted, results among the taught will not be so sadly to seek.

At a moment when there are on all sides apparent enthusiasm and interest, it seems odd and unfriendly to sound any note of doubt; but it may save some sharp disappointment if we realise that, with all our keenness, we are not likely to secure results all at once. We have in the country a profession which possesses probably less knowledge of English language and literature, and of the way to teach it, than of any other subject in the school curriculum. We are slowly reforming methods which have in the last generation proved faulty. We have to teach boys who are, for the most part, frankly not interested as yet. We are dealing with a subject which has been by common consent the Cinderella of the curriculum. We may as well look facts in the face; and we shall be wise if we do not expect too much. We shall be wise to formulate to ourselves some simple and modest ideal at which to aim. For the present it will be enough to attempt to produce boys who can write clearly and speak clearly, and to hope that in future a time will come when boys will also appreciate the form of a fine sonnet, the grand roll of a Miltonic sentence, or the splendid imagery of Burke. There are those who hold with some plausibility that the æsthetic and practical faculties go not together, and that the lover of the beautiful in art and literature loves also the *fallentis semita vitæ*, on which the builders of empire are not wont to walk. We must not, in an enthusiasm for a subject, however just, lose sight of the supreme need of English schools to produce a race that can act without hesitation, and govern without fear or favour. To such men as these, clearness of speech and clearness of writing are essential, nor need they be dead to the greatness of their own literature. But it is not necessary for them to know the delicacy of Pater's rose-leaves, or to love the languors of Rossetti.

It seems worth while to enter this caution, even at the risk of finding the dread charge of Philistinism recoiling upon my own head, because it seems to be so readily taken for granted that all that is necessary is to draft a scheme which, at various ages, introduces boys (and girls) to a great number of authors, provides a great variety of elegant extracts and specimens, and rises, theoretically, in the last stages, to the level of histories of literature and advanced criticism of style. There is a distinct danger, in the present eagerness to do so much where our predecessors did so little, that we shall rear our pupils on a diet of ill-digested tit-bits; there is certainly a tendency to attempt to teach generalisations which the data in the boy's mind are wholly insufficient to support. In our

eagerness to cover much ground we shall cover no part, however small, thoroughly. Yet, surely, it is absurd at present to attempt in two hours a week, during a course which in the majority of cases lasts a bare four years, to give a clear conception of so grand, so vigorous, and so intertwined a growth as English literature. Rather let the books we offer in our course be few, and simple, and great. Let it be our aim to create the desire and the will to read: that will be enough, and will surely spell success. What is not done well is not worth doing: and luckily there is enough in English that is both supremely great and within the comprehension of the young, to offer food for four years and for more.

There is one "blessed" word in English education much in vogue at the present day, which he who writes on English teaching may hardly avoid, and that is "correlation," a word of powers as mystic and potent as ever was Mesopotamia. It is to be noted that "subject-fanatics" (and all honour to their enthusiasm) always want to correlate somebody else's subject to their own, and never their own to somebody else's. In this respect historians are grievous sinners: they cast out their shoe over Geography, but they make English Literature their washpot. Nor have geographers been unknown who have called on English masters to read a Life of Livingstone because they are at the time teaching Africa. It is not denied that, in planning a school-course, subjects can at times be made to help each other; but "correlation" in all its glory means the reduction of two or three subjects in a curriculum to a tributary position to the rest, where all should be free and equal. The enthusiast for English is often tempted to complain that the historian, contrary to his own teaching, too often advocates taxation without representation, when he demands help from the English master, and does not repay it by demanding good essay-writing, and good style in the history paper. Mr. Fowler, in the admirable paper already quoted, scores a distinct point when he notes with dismay that "at least one able and much-recommended *Introduction to English History* seeks to conciliate the schoolboy by frankly adopting his own slang." This is not playing the game fairly. Rather, if we are to speak of "correlation," let us enforce the doctrine that it is the duty of every master to insist on good English. The scientist must exact clear statement in the science note-book, the historian and the geographer lucidity in the written answer, and classical and modern-language masters style in the translation. If any subject has a clear practical utility, it is the English language, which the boy uses, and must use, every

day of his life, both at school and afterwards; and if we are to add, as we should, an attempt to introduce the pupil to the great things of literature, then must the subject stand on its own basis, and work out its own salvation from its own principles.

If any apology is needed for dealing at such length with general principles, it can only be said that it seems to the writer that, at the present moment, attention is so closely fixed on drawing out detailed courses, and producing an infinite number of separate little texts, often of comparatively obscure and second-rate authors, that it is necessary to stand aside and take a clear view of the whole field. But my general principles can be briefly stated. I believe that we cannot just now attempt more than the production of good writing, and that even to secure this we must awaken more interest, and produce more competence, in the men who teach; that we should study a few simple and wholly excellent works, trying to arouse keenness, and the desire to read; and that we should claim for the subject its proper place, as that which conditions the rest, and is wholly worthy of the first, and not the last, place in the school curriculum.

With this in our minds, we pass to the consideration of details, and we shall probably find ourselves in most schools able to dispose of two periods a week, and a portion of home-work, in making plans for boys of the Upper and Middle School, with perhaps a progressively more liberal allowance as we descend to the lowest form of the school. Two periods will be given for Geography, and two for History, making up the average concession of a period a day for the study of English subjects. We shall have to find room for the study of formal grammar and structure, essay-writing, and the reading of literature. Formal grammar at once opens up a controversy, and it is certainly a subject which is losing ground. Vivid recollections remain with many of us of long and complicated schemes of analysis, in which some fine and glowing passage of poetry was laid upon the dissecting-table, and with cold determination divided up until it had revealed the last secrets of its structure, and the last sub-extension of its predicate was exposed to view. But not many of us would state that we had conceived anything but a violent distaste for the process, or had in any way learned therefrom how to write well ourselves. This process of articulating the skeleton of language is surely to be kept within strict limits, and it passes comprehension why reformers should urge the subordination of formal grammar in Latin and French, and

still insist on the retention of the study in the mother-tongue, where, if anywhere, it is not needed. In the lower forms it would seem certainly useful that there should be analysis of simple easy sentences, and parsing of all parts of speech. For the rest I would leave insight into sentence-structure to come from Latin, and only in non-Latin schools would I carry on formal analysis of complex and compound sentences in any forms but the lowest. On the other hand, in all the junior forms it would be useful to introduce a thought-out course of word-building, for nothing hinders the young writer at the start so much as the natural poverty of his vocabulary.

The main work will be composition, and there will be the main difficulty. At the outset there arises this obstacle, that the boy will not have at his command more than some five hundred words, or possibly less; and if this seems a small total, let it be remembered that authors of the first rank say all they wish to say with less than ten thousand. So we masters attempt to supply this lack by artificial methods, such as making the boys draw up lists of words from a page or two of a good author which they do not understand, and then explaining them, by extracting strings of synonyms from a dictionary, and inverting sentences to show their use, and by turning "Saxon" sentences into "Latin," and *vice versa*. Occasional lessons such as these are undoubtedly useful, and, if time admits of a regular course, can be very valuable. But in most cases little more can be done than to provide a regular course of lessons in word-building, and, for the rest, we must content ourselves with encouraging the class to ask questions about the words they read in their authors, and trust to the natural expansion which comes with growth.

Here, as in other subjects, more attention can certainly be paid with good results to oral work, the great saver of time. A young boy will think nothing of writing a sentence without a finite verb, but he will not speak one. With patient encouragement quite little boys can be made to give their answers in complete sentences, and be led on to a point at which they can reproduce, in connected sentences, the substance of a story or of a passage which has been read to them. The greatest efforts must be made to extinguish the "aphasia" characteristic of the English class-room, and there is hope, at any rate, that the boy who has been trained early to tell a connected story, or to reproduce an argument before his class, will not develop into the nervous and tongue-tied hobbledehoy who, in the Sixth Form, must be so familiar a spectacle to the inspector.

In the first attempts at the essay proper, emphasis must,

from the start, be laid on structure; the sentences must contain complete thoughts, the paragraphs must develop each a feature of the subject, and the writer must be made to explain why he has made his divisions. But it is obvious that if he possesses few words, and very few thoughts of his own, he is likely to be gravelled for lack of matter at the outset. Without material there can be no good writing, and it is the business of the master to see that it is provided in some way or other. The worst method will be to provide it himself, but he need not have recourse to this extreme measure. Perhaps, with a young form, it is most useful to collect ideas and opinions from all, and to place them on the blackboard; afterwards, with the help of the form, they can be arranged in order, and the skeleton of the essay produced. Another interesting and stimulating plan is to make the boys go through a thought exercise for five or ten minutes, putting down on paper their thoughts as they come. It is a good training in concentration, and the results can be used for class-exercises, for discussion, criticism, and amplification. References can be given to the form, or to the school, library, and other methods will occur. But the essay, however simple it may be, must be built upon a structure of thought, developing in logical order, and there must be no attempt to force the boys to make bricks without straw, by telling them, for instance, to write on Horatio Nelson or The Cat, and leaving them, there and then, to do the best they can with the subject. There is no necessity for an essay to be produced once a week: there *is* necessity for time and trouble to be taken upon all that is written, and a week spent on careful preparation, followed by the essay itself in the next week, will be found, in the end, to have been no waste of time.

Masters generally complain that the difficulty is to find a subject; and though this seems to the outsider a simple enough task, it is by no means so easy as it looks. But with young boys the task is not so hard. They should be taught to reproduce, to tell a story simply, and to give a clear description of an event. The imagination can be called into play, letters written, and fictitious events explained. For instance, a class will take pleasure in giving an imaginary account of the reasons which caused them to be late for school on a supposed occasion, or of their personal experiences in the Spanish Armada. From this they can proceed to short biographical and nature-study essays, and the work can be varied by reproductions of the gist of narrative poems, or the expansion into proper form of a skeleton outline supplied by the master. As the boys grow older, outside reading can be

usefully suggested, and at all times the greatest praise can be awarded to originality. Once again, it is essential that time should be given, so that the work shall not be done by the boys, nor corrected by the master, in a perfunctory spirit. In the highest forms of all, it may be well not to require an essay more than three times a term, but to demand the utmost in style, matter, and preparation, of which the boy is capable. A month's notice is given, and the essay becomes a great occasion: it is surprising how excellent often is the work produced upon such terms. It is well, also, to study the bent of the form, and to develop its strong side by the essay. Most forms have a leaning in some direction, to politics, to history, or to literature, and will write well or badly according as they feel interest or indifference. In other words, if the essays are set to suit the form, the thought-content comes readily, while the boys are stimulated and begin to feel a mastery over their own language. But the writer still remembers with disgust an inspection of a Sixth Form keenly interested in politics and producing excellent essay work on social and political themes, which was wholly confined to eliciting their views on the Spenserian stanza, and on the comparative structure of the Shakespearian and Miltonic sonnet.

There are, of course, plenty of pitfalls by the way, and the essay-master has a task which makes exorbitant demands on his time, his energy, and his skill. It is easy to fall into the mistake of discussing the subject too much *ex cathedra*, as if the treatment of it must necessarily follow fixed laws, and is not a matter of opinion. It is the boys' own essays which must be continually discussed, and they must join in the discussion. It is easy to crush individuality, and to train boys to say more or less the correct thing: it is harder to check faults, to expose mistakes, and at the same time to encourage the good points peculiar to the boy. It is sadly easy to create the idea that an essay is a purely formal production, consisting of formal parts, each capable of a label, and to fall into artificialities of diction, and a silly pursuit of elegant synonyms. Rightly or wrongly, the composition-master is often held up as the cause of the inflated English of the daily journals, the excessive use of epithets and periphrasis, the repetition of the same idea in more than one form, and all the various devices by which many words can be made to cloak scantiness or confusion of thought. In my opinion he is wrongly accused, because he has never had so profound an influence on shaping the national style; and I prefer to believe that, if he had made himself felt, that style

would have been better. Finally, throughout the whole course oral work must continue to find its full opportunity, and the essay work of the Sixth Form should go hand in hand with the Debating Society. The aim is, to produce not only writers, but speakers, and that essay-master is in the happiest position who is also the chairman, or at any rate a leading member, of the school Debating Society.

Two other points can be discussed very briefly. Paraphrasing is going where it deserves to go, for it usually meant the rewriting in bad English of what was expressed in good, or the reduction of spirited poetry to the most impossible prose. The meaning of a passage can generally be elicited orally, or stated on paper simply; but this was not quite the object of this exploded method which reduced so many smiling oases to a desert. For Précis-writing the case is different. But the boy who has been trained to write all his essays from a structural skeleton, and to examine the sequence and structure of passages from good prose authors, as he will have been on the methods roughly sketched above, will find no difficulty with this art, so dear to the souls of the examiners of the Civil Service Commission, and so rarely employed within the Civil Service itself.

There remains for consideration the scheme of authors who should be read in school, and at school, and the two possibilities are not the same. Keeping a simple aim in view all the time, we shall not attempt to do more than create a liking for what we take in the class-room, and suggest further and wider reading which can be carried on through the school, or local, library. We must move carefully, for there are notice-boards of "danger" on all hands. There are those, and they are many, who say that anything read at school is spoiled for ever, and boldly demand that the best things shall be saved from the pollution of the class-room. Their experience was unfortunate: they learned to analyse "the poet's eye in a fine frenzy rolling," and to parse "the multitudinous seas incarnadine." Let us hope that we are giving our boys a better time. There are others, for whom Prof. Raleigh speaks, who see the infinite variety of literature and the danger of the schoolmaster's pontifical position. They would have no orthodoxy, and no Pope. Prof. Mackail reinforces these warnings with the just saying that literature is an interpretation of life, and that it is useless to offer boys the interpretation before they have lived the text. "What you can do," he says [1] in weighty words, "and what is in itself no light and no ignoble task, is to stand away from between the

[1] At the General Meeting of the English Association, January 1908.

child and literature, and to clear away the obstacles. These obstacles are many, and the work of clearing them away is very useful and very fruitful. One of the greatest obstacles, perhaps, is the text-book. One of the next greatest is the teacher. In dealing with literature in any full sense, to efface oneself, to stand away from between the child and literature, is the highest, and not the easiest, of the duties which the teacher can undertake."

Obviously there is high warrant for caution, and reason for the belief that what is read should be simple and great. Two authors fulfil in an especial degree our requirements for boys, Shakespeare and Scott, and these should be the staple of the curriculum of every boys' school. We must remember that literature is the interpretation of life, and draft our scheme so that it feeds the interests of the boy as he grows from childhood. He is at first keenly interested in stories of deeds, and of great men of action, and this interest gradually develops into the love of romance and tales of adventure. Therefore, with the smallest boys, Hans Andersen and Kingsley's *Water-Babies* will do for a start, to be followed by Kingsley's *Heroes*, and by heroic legends of Greece, and Rome, and the North. There are plenty of poetry-books from which a wise selection can be made, and repetition can be learned. Only, let there be no notes, plenty of reading aloud and oral work between master and class, and no examination. As the boy approaches and passes twelve, the age of Scott begins. A novel of Stevenson will form an easy introduction, and *Kenilworth*, *Ivanhoe*, and *Quentin Durward* may follow. *Marmion*, and then the cantos of action in *The Lady of the Lake*, provide excellent poetry, combined with Macaulay's *Lays*, old ballads, and some of Campbell's poems. From thirteen onwards the boy develops to the appreciation of dramatic action, and Shakespeare can be begun. For a full discussion of the way to read him, no one can do better than turn to the admirable leaflet (No. 7) of the English Association, on *The Teaching of Shakespeare in Schools*, in which the best treatment of the play is considered, for the three periods of school life—twelve to fourteen, fourteen to sixteen, and sixteen onwards. *Julius Cæsar* is the noblest play to begin with, and *Henry V.* may follow. But the main needs are: to read aloud in class, to act in class, to study character broadly and simply, to make systematic appeal to the boys' imagination, and to learn by heart what is best. Advantage must be taken of the local theatre, if there is one: there is no doubt about the enthusiasm of school children for Shakespeare on the stage, just as there is unhappily

none about the indifference of their elders. A carefully chosen comedy might follow the drama of heroic action, and at this stage of the school course there should be a year spent mainly on Shakespeare. After that, when the boy is beginning to take an interest in the country into which he has been born, and in modern life, about the age of fifteen, Tennyson is the best material, because he is simple, and more than any other poet expressed the nineteenth century. It should be possible to read *The Princess*, and a selection of other poems, and something may be done with the Arthurian legend. Finally I would revert to Shakespeare, and treat two contrasted plays more elaborately and more thoroughly.

In schools which carry their boys on to eighteen or nineteen, the last three years of the course should be planned to give a general view of English literature, touching Chaucer, Spenser, Milton, Dryden, Pope, and the later eighteenth century lightly, but the Renaissance of the nineteenth century fully. It will be observed, possibly with disfavour, that the plan sketched above disregards the history of literature completely. This disregard is deliberate, and is based on the belief that it is wiser to consider the boy's development, rather than the formal growth of the subject-matter. We are using literature to educate the boy: we are not aiming at, we shall not be wise to aim at, anything else whatever. The limits allotted to this article have already been exceeded, and no attempt will be made to settle in detail an ideal imaginary course for an ideal imaginary school. In every form a prose book should be read as well as poetry, but it should be second to the poetry, in the hope that by exalting poetry to its proper place we may even in the most humble measure "redeem from decay the visitations of divinity to man." As a nation we produce great poets, but we do not read them: let schoolmasters therefore do their best "to stand away from between their pupils and the poets," to clear the ground, to remember the immaturity and the inexperience of their classes, and so untiringly to give them the opportunity—they cannot do more—of learning to love literature, that as a result their boys, when they come to manhood, shall appreciate not only what is great in action, but also what is noble in art.

C. N.

CHAPTER II

TEACHING METHODS (*continued*)

LATIN AND GREEK

IT is obviously impossible, in the limits of a few pages, even to pretend to examine all the questions connected with the teaching of these languages in schools, yet there is no subject on which, in the face of criticisms levelled from so many quarters, it is more important to have clear ideas both as to methods and aims. We hope that the enemies of the Classics, who are not all of them ignorant nor all unreasonable, will fail in their attempt to oust the so-called "dead" languages from education; but we shall have this to thank them for, that, if they fail, they will at any rate have compelled the classical men to set their house in order. The attack, so far as it goes home, does so because Latin and Greek are taught mechanically and without intelligence, because schoolmasters acquiesce in an absence of results, and because in some schools they allot too much time and allow it to be wasted, and in others allot too little and might as well allot none at all. But none of these defects are essential, and all that is needed is the exercise of common sense and the will to reform. We believe that in Latin and Greek we are teaching languages which, more than any others, illustrate the nature and the essential laws of speech, which form the living root of most of the tongues of modern Europe, and confer on those who have studied them a greater capacity for acquiring other languages; which, properly taught, provide a mental gymnastic of peculiar value, because the boy is continually thinking for himself in conditions of some difficulty; which open the door to the study of literature and art and all politics, and are the foundation of the humanities; which, finally, are full of high types and examples of great deeds done and noble words said, peculiarly capable of impressing the mind in the impressionable years which mark the transition to manhood. This being so, and an instrument of supreme educational value being in danger, Classical masters cannot acquiesce in seeing Latin and Greek hustled out of the curriculum, if, by any improvement they can make in themselves and

their methods, they can, finally and beyond dispute, justify their existence.

Until the "'sixties" Classics held the monopoly of Higher Secondary Education, and the methods which were established in the days when there was no competition and no criticism, are still traditional in the majority of the great schools. The best brains of the school are generally to be found on the Classical side, attracted there by the spirit of the place, and mainly by the fact that the Classics are most richly rewarded by scholarships at Oxford and Cambridge. A method of rigid and accurate drill in grammar and syntax is followed, combined with much careful exercise in the composition of prose and verse. The authors studied, as has been well said, are read rather for the sake of learning the language, than the language learned for the sake of reading the authors. Abundant time is granted, and the boys enjoy some ten years of practical specialisation. Dr. Rouse[1] has summed up the result by pointing out that in the seven leading schools — Winchester, Eton, Harrow, Rugby, Shrewsbury, Charterhouse, and Westminster—with all their advantages of wealth, equipment, and excellent material to work on, only 50 scholarships were won out of 271 given in one winter at the older Universities ; while of the average boy it cannot be denied that he never understands Latin or Greek, can hardly write a sentence without a mistake, or read a book without a "crib," and arrives at the University unable to write his own language with ease, and unwilling to work seriously at anything. We may hope that Dr. Rouse has overstated, but those who know will admit that the exaggeration is small. In the great day schools the position is better, and schools like Merchant Taylors', St. Paul's, and Manchester Grammar School win more successes relatively to their numbers, and probably do better with their average boys ; but this is not, or at any rate used not to be, due to any difference of method, but to the fact that the boys were drawn from poorer homes, had often their own way to make, and were more serious in their work. In the great majority of schools of local and second rank, the same traditional methods are being followed on an inadequate allowance of time. But it is clear that methods which do not obtain conspicuous success after ten years of specialisation, are not likely to bear fruit of any value in a course of four years at four periods a week. It is this state of things which has given to the outcry against Classics all its danger, and the reformers are beginning to be heard. At present the schools

[1] "Classical Work and Method in the Twentieth Century," *Rivista di Scienza* "*Scientia*," iv. No. 7, Bologna, 1908.

which have broken from English tradition are few—*rari nantes in gurgite vasto*—but they are justifying themselves by results, and are winning converts every term.

If the precise question is asked, where in English methods the time is lost or spent to so little purpose, the answer would seem to be that there is frequently no definiteness of aim, no unity of method, among the masters who carry on the Classical work of a school. One man may be interested in grammar, another in composition, another in archæology, and each may try to get a different result from the boys. Again, in many schools of the second rank, exigencies of staff lead to the Latin lesson being taken by men who have little real knowledge of the language, and when this takes place in a low form it is supposed not to matter—though it matters very much indeed. But the great loss of time comes through endeavouring to teach composition up to a point of artificial excellence, which can only be reached by the very few. Hundreds may fall by the way, but if one or two endure to win the Hertford or the Ireland, the school is justified of its works. It is not denied that the accomplished English boy, who wins his open scholarship, and is equally good in prose and verse composition and unseen translation, has probably reached a standard unattained in any other country. But how few reach this perfection, and at what a cost are they produced!

In Germany, as might be expected, there is neither uncertainty of aim nor indefiniteness of method. An exhaustive account may been found in a Special Report by Mr. J. L. Paton on *The Teaching of Classics in Prussian Secondary Schools*, in which the reader will find typical time-tables, *Lehrpläne*, and full discussion of the methods followed in all stages and in every subdivision of Classical teaching. It is necessary, in reading it, to bear in mind the advantages with which the Germans start: a liberal allowance of time, free hours of preparation for the teacher, classes of uniform attainment, whose members will stay the full school-course, and boys who have a very definite and ever-present motive for work in the *Einjähriges Zeugniss*, which frees them from one year of military service. The aim all German teachers set before themselves, is "to introduce the pupil by means of the literature to the intellectual life and civilisation of antiquity"; their ideal, therefore, unlike ours, is not linguistic; it is information, not scholarship. In a Reform Gymnasium, with boys beginning Latin about the age of twelve or thirteen, in four years accidence and syntax will have been thoroughly studied, and Cæsar's *De Bello Gallico*, some 1,700 lines of Ovid's *Metamorphoses*

the *Jugurtha* and *Catiline* of Sallust, the Catilinarian speeches of Cicero and his *De imperio Cn. Pompeii*, two books of Livy, and selections from the *Æneid*, will all have been read, some of them with a few omissions. In an ordinary English school—for instance, one working under the Board of Education with a four years' course—the boys will hardly have read more than a little Ovid and Cæsar in this time, and will be incapable of facing anything but the easiest unseen. The reason for the different result is not far to seek. In the above curriculum ten hours weekly are allowed for the first two years, and eight for the last two. In the English school there will be four, or at most six. In the German school written exercises will be rare, and translation into Latin unimportant. In this country, much time will have been spent, with varying success, in teaching the boys to write Latin. In this country, again, there will have been no oral work; in Germany oral methods will have been in continual use. There the language is not used for dealing with the ordinary affairs of the classroom, but after a translation lesson one of the boys will read the whole passage through under correction from the class, and in revision the master will read it sentence by sentence, while the class, with books closed, will translate as they hear. Again, the teacher will put questions on the subject-matter to the class from the very first, and the answers must always be in complete sentences. Beginning in the simplest form, these questions and answers can be developed almost to the pitch of free composition in the language. In this way certainly time is saved, and the power of self-expression is developed. The authors, in turn, will have been read for their subject-matter, but great importance will have been attached to written translation in the mother-tongue, and the greatest pains taken by means of pictures, maps, models, and possibly excursions, to impart life and reality to the whole study.

It is not contended that in Germany all is perfect, and that salvation is to be found by the wholesale transference of German methods to English schools. Something considerable is lost by casting aside formal Latin Prose, for which compensation is not found in the additional attention given to translation into the mother-tongue. Something intangible, but of very real value, is lost by the total neglect of verse-writing in the upper forms. But at the same time it seems to me that there is very much to be learned from Germany, and that the German plan, or something like it, ought to be followed in all those schools which do not carry the majority of their boys to the Universities. I mean that English schools should become less purely linguistic in their aim, should endeavour

to read very much more of the original authors, and should read them more for their subject-matter, and as a light upon the life, the thought, and the institutions of the ancient world.

But there are lions in the way, and the first and perhaps the greatest of these is that which roars perpetually under the name of External Examination. There is little real hope until the reformers bind this beast with chains, or at any rate tame him. So long as the examiner, who has generally never taught boys, takes delight in EQUABUS and SUPELLECTILIS, and the gender of CURCULIO, when examining the lower school, so long there is little hope for the schoolmaster whose object is to teach a language and not the Primer. But this opens up a wide subject, on which there is no time to dwell here: it is but one instance of the stultification of attempts at reform by the unreasonable separation of examiners and teachers, which is so rooted in England. The second difficulty that must be boldly faced, is that proper time must be allowed for the subject, or no results can be hoped for. The minimum for any real success in a four years' course is a lesson a day, and, if possible, some home work for every lesson. We must make an end of compromises in England. We must make up our minds what are the proper subjects for a secondary education, and we must give them each their proper chance. And that this demand of a lesson a day for Latin is not excessive is proved by the practice of the great English Classical schools, of the Gymnasien and Reform Gymnasien of Germany, and by the verdict of Classical masters themselves everywhere, to be found in the *Seventeenth Annual Report of the Assistant-masters' Association*, 1907 (p. 22). Our third difficulty is that we must ruthlessly plan our curriculum for the average boy in the average school, and no longer follow, lamely and imperfectly, methods used for the sake of exceptional boys in exceptional schools. Schoolmasters should agree on their aim, and the aim should be, I believe, that stated in the last paragraph. It will be quite possible for all the Grammar Schools to build up the necessary specialisation on such a basis, and it will be a matter of great surprise if they do not find themselves much better off than they were before. Finally, and here we reach a point where English opinion is sharply divided, very much more use should be made of oral methods.

The recognised champion of the oral method, as applied to Classics in English schools, is Dr. Rouse, Headmaster of the Perse School, Cambridge, where the system is in full vogue,

and its results can be seen. Besides many papers by Dr. Rouse, there is a little book on *The Teaching of Latin* by Mr. W. H. S. Jones, which gives the outline of the method for a four years' course as followed at the Perse School, and it is well worth consulting by those who desire to inquire. "Omnis lingua usu potius discitur quam præceptis," wrote Comenius, and this is the text of Dr. Rouse. He points out that the ancient languages were once spoken, and that they were taught orally at the time of the Renaissance, while what is known as the traditional English method was never organised until the nineteenth century. Oral practice begins with the complete sentence, and follows the natural and easy way by which we have all acquired our native tongue from the lips of our nurses and our mothers. It is in all its stages alive; it compels attention; it keeps classes awake and alert. In comparison with written work it is very speedy, and allows more to be compressed into a limited time. It is continually appealing to the intelligence, and tolerates no mere passive receptivity. Thus it gives confidence, accuracy, and strength.

Disseritur contra: It is universally assumed that the oral method, as applied in England to the teaching of modern languages, is an unqualified success, but facts do not bear this out. Certain men of rare qualifications have obtained considerable results, but in the average orally trained school it is as well not to inquire too closely into the French of the fifth form. Boys can neither spell nor write grammatically, and their translation is little, if any, better than that of boys taught on the mechanical system of the educational dark ages. There should, therefore, be great hesitation before Latin follows French into the melting-pot of oral practice. It is argued, further, that there is more than one method of teaching, and that every teacher can succeed best with that which he has made his own, that Latin is mainly valuable as a gymnastic of the mind, and that the grammar is, above all things, profitable in giving a sure insight into the structure of language—that this insight, indeed, is so useful that modern languages can be orally taught without detriment only so long as the formal study of Latin is retained. It is pointed out that success in these new methods would require that all masters teaching should have Latin at their fingers' ends, and should be perfectly disciplinarians. No man could teach SURGO on Dr. Rouse's method of making the class alternately rise and sit, while they chant SURGIMUS, SURGITIS, SURGUNT in chorus, unless he had his class well in hand. The main result of imposing this method on English schools will be to make

confusion worse confounded, and to reduce Classical work to chaos, since it is probably true that the oral method badly followed is worse than any other.

Its champions would probably reply that their withers are unwrung, and indeed they have, in my opinion, the best of the argument on the whole. Much of the opponents' case falls to the ground if masters are themselves reformed, and become more competent, and particularly if they are allowed time to prepare their lessons, and are relieved from the perpetual stretch of the school day. I feel myself that very much more can be done orally than has been done in the past, with very great profit to the schools, and that schoolmasters are not a little responsible for that national "aphasia" which is supposed to be inherent in the English race, and which makes *viva voce* work seem so foreign and unnatural. But it is not to be forgotten that an enthusiastic master who inspires his class can attain equal results on another system; has done so in the past, and is doing so to-day; that what is mainly wanted is an increase of teaching ability; and that if the oral method were universal in the teaching of Latin and Greek in English schools to-day, things being as they are, results would not be very much better, if indeed they would not be much worse. Granted this increase of professional competence, there can be no doubt that to secure economy of time, lively and natural interest, and continuous mental activity on the part of the class, the great majority of teachers will not neglect so valuable an instrument as the oral method offers, when wisely used.

There should be in every school a definite programme, a *Lehrplan*, and the fault has hitherto been that too many exercises, too much unnecessary grammar, and too much Reader have been required. Readers and Courses are apt to be the bane of classical teaching at the present day, and boys muddle along for so many years with uninteresting sentences, and stories about isolated people and events, that they lose keenness. The standard should be pitched higher, and original authors should be attempted much earlier. It is best to give hostages to fortune, and to show what I mean, by stating the plans I would make for a four years' course, in a school where the boys begin Latin at the age of twelve. It should be possible in the first year to learn the five declensions, the four regular conjugations, the common irregular verbs, and the deponents. The syntax should include easy Temporal, Causal, Conditional, and Final sentences, which offer no difficulty to boys, the Ablative Absolute, and simple Accusative and Infinitive. A Reader can be found, which

need not be slavishly followed. Above all, there should be from the start a definite vocabulary, rigidly learned, regularly revised, and always exacted, and this should be continued throughout the school. With the second year the Reader can be discarded, and an original author taken; preferably a poet, Vergil or Ovid, which should be most carefully read, and, at the start, possibly written out by the boys after each lesson; this might be followed by a book of Cæsar later in the year, read intelligently with maps, plans, and pictures, and every aid that the master can bring to his assistance, to make that which is dead alive, and to persuade his class that they are studying a human document. Throughout this year the Compound Sentence will be studied, the accidence revised, and the irregular verbs mastered. The vocabulary will need just as constant attention and thought this year as before. In the third year easy continuous prose can be begun, if not before; the syntax can be taken more thoroughly, and much more can be read from a choice which will lie among the books of Vergil or Ovid, Cæsar, Sallust, and such speeches as the Catilinarians of Cicero. Finally, in the fourth year there should be no difficulty in attempting Livy and Cicero, no inability to face a "pass" unseen, and no fear of an ordinary simple prose.

So far attention has been paid almost exclusively to Latin, but very much of what has been said applies equally to Greek, and should so be read. Latin, at any rate in the majority of schools, is the language of primary concern; the position of Greek is, and will be, different, even if the study does not altogether disappear. Such a result I should regard as a national calamity, neither more nor less: for, without entering into the polemics of compulsory Greek, it is easy to see the incalculable loss to art and literature, criticism, politics, and history that would follow from a general ignorance of the language of the people who have been in so special a measure the inspirers of the world. There are not wanting those who observe in America the results of a Greekless generation; and it is all the more important that in England we should do our utmost to justify, by the Greek we teach, something of what we claim for it. At present, the very fact that a modicum must be acquired by all who enter Oxford and Cambridge, is of very doubtful service to those who believe in Greek as a school subject. This modicum, or rather minimum, crammed with disgust, and rejected with disdain when it has served its purpose, is held up as the result of Classical teaching in schools; and there depart into the outer world men who associate the Hellenic spirit with

nothing save paradigms and parasangs. Surely here is an opportunity for reform which should not be allowed to slip, especially when we are in danger of losing all.

For all except the highly specialised Classical scholar it would be well that Greek grammar should be reduced to a minimum. It is not meant by this statement that it should be absolutely neglected, for the minimum will be found to be formidable enough. It *is* meant that a paper in Greek grammar should not be regarded as the final test of a Passman's knowledge and appreciation of the language. The aim should be to reach the stage of reading Greek authors at the earliest possible moment; and if Greek is not begun before fourteen (and there are sound educational reasons for holding that it should not be begun earlier) this should be a possible ideal, and in Germany, with a liberal allowance of time, it is attempted with a fair measure of success. It follows that, if this is our aim, we should not expect from our average student any high standard of Greek composition. It need not figure in the Pass Examination at all, for its place would be better filled by a passage of moderate difficulty for unseen translation. At school a certain amount of composition will necessarily be done, to drive home the grammar, both in accidence and syntax; but it will be done to build up sound translation from Greek into English, and not from English into Greek. In this way much time will be set free for the reading of authors, among whom the poets should find a large place, nor will it be a quite impossible ideal to hope that the average boy of eighteen will have been thus led to think of questions of morals, of art, and of politics. So, and not otherwise, may Greek give a portion of its message even to those who cannot carry their studies far; but so long as boys are seriously expected to parse pluperfect duals, and remark that "they, and not Pericles, are generals," so long will Athene, the goddess of wisdom, refuse her light to their minds.

On many other questions it is impossible to touch, nor will it be worth while to draw up a scheme for a course of Greek. The whole purpose of these remarks has been that we should teach Classics, not for drill and discipline, but to bring our boys, in far greater numbers than we now succeed in doing, into living touch with Classical thought and teaching. If we can do this, we shall do no mean service to our country. There is no nation burdened with empire that has so much to learn from Imperial Rome as we; and a democracy may be saved from many a false prophet, if it numbers among its ranks a sufficient number who have been trained to detect

sophistry in the clear light of Hellenism. But to attain this object we first have lumber to cast overboard, both in the methods we follow and the matter we teach ; and, examiners and schoolmasters alike, we have to realise, more fully than we do, that, in the words of Carlyle, "Mind grows, not like a vegetable, by having its roots littered with etymological compost, but like a spirit, by mysterious contact with spirit, thought kindling itself at the living fire of thought."

C. N.

CHAPTER II

TEACHING METHODS (*continued*)

MODERN LANGUAGES

THE teacher of modern languages in times past has been known to despise his occupation. "*Nous méprisons*," says Vauvenargues, "*beaucoup de choses pour ne pas nous mépriser nous-mêmes*." Many of us learnt very little from those old-time teachers: we were to blame, perhaps, or their methods. But the teacher of to-day will wish to maintain a proper respect for his calling, and his first care will be to equip himself adequately for it. What preliminary training may we demand from him? We shall not be setting our standard too high if we say that he should have made his language his chief study at a University, and that he must have spent at least a year in the land where it is spoken and among the people who speak it. A stay of twelve months in France or Germany will inspire, in those who are fitted by temperament for modern-language teaching, affection for the people and admiration for some of their qualites. Such sympathy with the foreign nation is essential in the modern-language master. The teacher of French must have some touch of the *esprit gaulois*; in some measure he must be *l'adversaire de l'hypocrisie, des préjugés, des niaises conventions, l'ami de la libre discussion de toutes les doctrines*: to the teacher of German it falls to represent the thoroughness, the geniality, the absence of *mauvaise honte*, which mark our Teutonic kinsfolk. And both will be students of their adopted lands—revisiting them frequently, in touch with their life and literature, counting among their intimate friends Frenchmen and Germans. They may become more French than the French, more genuinely German than the German born, but this danger need cause no alarm. An excess of enthusiasm is infinitely less deplorable than contempt born of ignorance.

The teacher is thus a representative in a modest way of Germany or France, and, as such, it will be his aim to carry on all his intercourse with his pupils in the language he teaches. His French pupils should know him only as a teacher of French, his German pupils only as a teacher of

German. His class-room should have a foreign atmosphere: it should suggest the gaiety, the urbanity, the alertness of France, or the heartiness and persistence of Germany. Its decorations may fall short of William Morris's rule: some of them may not be altogether beautiful, but all should be helpful in the creation of the foreign *milieu* or in the teaching of the foreign tongue.

One or two general principles may now be formulated for our modern-language work. The first requirements are co-operation and co-ordination. A full measure of success is impossible unless a common method is followed throughout the school: the *désorientation* which usually afflicts the pupil on passing from one form to another, means only delay and loss. Supplementing this co-operation will be a scheme of work, by which the range of the teaching in each part of the school will be determined and the grammar apportioned so as to avoid omissions or an excess of repetition; further, a list of books will be drawn up for lower, middle, and upper school reading. And here it is necessary to decide upon the objects which our teaching will have in view.

Logically, as we are dealing with a living language, a speech, a tongue, our aim will be to enable the pupil to speak the language. For practical purposes the power of reading the language with ease and intelligence will be even more useful. But speaking the language will prove the shortest road to reading it, and will lead naturally to writing it. Our work, then, centres round the spoken language. We have to provide a new medium for expressing thought.

From the outset the foreign name of the object, the foreign description of the action, will be taught without the intermediary of English. When we pass to reading books, we read them in their native French or German: we discover by questions in the foreign language if the subject-matter is understood, and we explain difficulties by using simpler foreign words. Translation into English finds no place in our scheme. The process is helpful only in the study of English, but our business is to teach French or German, and we assume a reasonable curriculum in which the teaching of the mother-tongue is always some stages ahead of the teaching of any foreign tongue. Similarly, we discard literal translation from English into French or German. In its place we have some fifteen methods for practising in writing what one knows in the foreign idiom. At the beginning, there will be written answers to questions, and the reproduction of easy stories. Later, many opportunities will be found for reproducing in

the foreign language what one has read in it, and for expressing directly through the foreign medium what one thinks, or has seen, or experienced. All through the school course, the method is the natural one of using the foreign language directly, as the native uses it.

We will even make an endeavour to follow the native speaker in using grammar unconsciously. By basing our teaching on the reading material, it is possible for the pupil to learn to speak and write grammatically without spending, in a wearisome way, vast amounts of valuable time. Grammar is not for us an intricate and illogical map of a country no man ever reached, but that interesting thing, a plan of a district one knows well. It will summarise what has been noted in reading. Examples will precede the rule in place and importance. It will be aided by the *Sprachgefühl* which comes from speaking and hearing the language, so that it will be difficult for a student to write, after several years' labour in the language, such a phrase as *Je me suis y résigné*, a type of French which leapt to the pen of the old-time pupil.

We refuse, in short, to be blind to the obvious fact that French and German are spoken languages. It follows that the matter of pronunciation is of high importance, not only for reasons of æsthetics, but for practical purposes. Travellers in France, whose grammar was not very faulty and vocabulary not remarkably limited, have found themselves altogether unintelligible owing to their faulty pronunciation: again, the unhappy student, whose pronunciation was neglected, was unable to learn French words chiefly because he was incapable of pronouncing them. We are strongly of opinion that pronunciation can be acquired with certainty and rapidity only by such a preliminary course of phonetics as now forms part of the German curriculum. In all things the rule of thumb is to be deprecated, and though many fortunate people have arrived at an admirable pronunciation by dint of imitation alone, others, after years of imitatory efforts, have continued to make the most distressing errors. For a teacher, we would say with Mr. W. H. Widgery, that gallant pioneer of rational methods, "a knowledge of phonetics is as indispensable as a knowledge of notes for a musician"; and, for the taught, the time necessary for learning what the sounds are, and how only they can be correctly made, is time well spent.

For the first years of direct teaching there is no lack of class-books, nor is their quality such as to tempt the teacher to compile his own. Mr. Rippmann's First Course,

M. Ceppi's, Mr. Calvert's, Mr. Kirkman's, and others, provide much reading material touching on French life and history, and it is material of this kind—*le lien intime entre la vie réelle et l'enseignement*—that we must find throughout. As further aids in effective use of the material, we have singing and elocution. Singing makes for sweetness and light, for a sense of rhythm, for elegance of pronunciation: but unfortunately not every teacher is a musician. An elocutionist he must be—careful to make his French or German sweet upon his tongue, not scorning the phonograph's help; "if we really desire to teach French"—the words are Mr. Widgery's—"the French must be the first thing to be heard, and the last thing must be a memory haunted by the clear thoughts and clear sounds of the French."

In reading, as in writing, the effort will be to enable the pupil to avoid making mistakes, rather than to correct them when made. Thus, for dictation, which very early has a place in our time-table, passages will be chosen not for their difficulties but for the practice they afford in sounds and words already studied: the dictation may afterwards be used for conversation and reproduction. And the exercise has other virtues: it quickens the power of listening to what is said, which other studies tend to atrophy, and it develops the understanding ear. Our pupil will avoid, for example, such a mistake as that of the old-time teacher who replied, *Non, madame, je suis homme marié*, when his hostess inquired of him, *Aimez-vous la campagne?*

For the middle period of the school course the ideal reading-book—varied, representative, vivid, gay, and informing—has not yet appeared, but there is, again, especially in French, a wide choice of class-books. From these it is easy to see how experienced teachers have taught their classes. M. Ceppi's book, for example, shows how words are brought together in sense groups and etymological groups, and the vocabulary, during this period, systematically formed. The teacher may wish to compose his own *thèmes* from the reading material of preceding lessons, supplemented by questions of *actualité*, domestic and general, and to give his pupils practice in letter-writing, a form of composition from which no one escapes. But where more than one teacher is engaged in the work, a class-book, or, at least, a grammar-book, is indispensable. There are several grammars, such as Mr. Hartog's, written in French for English pupils, and designed for teaching by example rather than by precept. The examples, at times, are lacking in *piquant*, but the student will be able to enrich the printed page with others of his own finding. A grammar

common to the whole school appears necessary if orderly progression is to be secured. Everything depends on a real knowledge of the ground which has been covered. Nothing heartens the pupil so much as to feel he is actually advancing towards a definite goal, that French can be learnt, and that he is learning it.

In the last years the modern-language lesson will resemble very closely the English lesson. The books which are read will be chosen not only, or chiefly, for the sake of vocabulary, but more for their literary value. The career of the foreign author is first considered; his book is then read, summarised, and criticised in French or German; written work is found in compositions, summaries, and reproductions of what has been read; etymology and grammar are given their due place—the last. Here the tendency will be to read too little, to question and analyse too much. Mr. Rippmann claims for the pupil 1,000 pages of French reading by the end of his sixteenth year: and this does not seem an impossible ideal, but, to achieve it, only some portions of the book must be read intensively, and the rest with the smallest amount of comment to which the teacher can restrict himself. Always the teacher's difficulty will be, not in the paucity of the means at his disposal, but in their abundance. To avoid diffuseness it will be necessary "to limit our affairs to two or three," to make a plan and keep to it.

The results obtained in Germany by such a method as is here outlined were described by Miss Brebner, after visiting upwards of forty schools, as "positively brilliant." Given the German conditions, which approach perfection, results equally satisfactory to the teacher and the taught can be obtained in England: even under imperfect conditions much may be done. Most of all, perhaps, this direct method differs from the old in awakening the pupil's interest in the foreign people and language, in creating in him "*le désir d'étendre les connaissances . . . ce qui est l'essentiel.*" It conforms to the new spirit in education: it trains the intelligence rather than the memory, its appeal is to reason, it develops sympathy—it is on the side of humanity, and it is helping to turn into a truth the ancient paradox, *labor ipse voluptas.*

ARTHUR WILSON-GREEN.

CHAPTER II

TEACHING METHODS (*continued*)

HISTORY

THERE are many points of method and detail in the teaching of History which clamour for discussion and solution, but perhaps there is no question quite so important as that which presses heavily on the tired master, at the end of a long day's wrestle with stupid forms—the question "Why should History be taught at all? What is the gain which I can expect for my boys as the result of their work with me?" We need to form for ourselves an ideal for which to strive, for it is only in this way that our work can be classic in quality, in the Paterian sense of seeing the end from the beginning, and of being conscious in every part of it of every other part.

The first and most important object in work should, I believe, be interest. We want every boy and girl in England to feel that History is the most fascinating study in the world. We want it to be regarded, not as a mere bundle of colourless facts, nor as a cold, dry science, but primarily, in early stages of development, as a coloured and wonderful drama, and then, as our scholars' minds develop, as a drama with a purpose, whose various acts, though each is in a way complete in itself, are yet leading up to other acts yet to be played. Our work will follow the spirit of J. R. Green rather than that of the *Cambridge Modern History*, for we shall try to throw ourselves into far-off times rather than to criticise them from the outside. This interest will be an elusive thing, and no examination test will be able accurately to gauge it, for it will be shown "in new tastes, enlarged sympathies, greater power of analysis, and sounder judgment, rather than in tangible acquisitions of information that can be classified and tabulated."[1] It is the only force which can in any measure give a dispensation to a man to evade the narrow life of the present, and to escape from "the daily round, the common task" into a freer land where he may converse with the rogues and the saints, the kings and the peasants of the past.

[1] Paper of Miss Wells in *Proceedings of the North-Central History Teachers' Association* (Chicago, 1908).

After saying this, it seems a contradiction to point out that our next object must be to give our pupils a solid framework of fact, but the contradiction is a good deal more apparent than real. There must ever be interest, and interest must lure the scholar on to fact; but without fact History loses meaning, and becomes the worst possible educational instrument. We need to have a framework in English History, and so the dates of the kings and of the most important events of the reigns should be learned, and learned early. I have known boys who have told me that Trafalgar was won in Elizabeth's reign, and have mixed up Nelson with Drake; and this kind of thing wrecks interest, because only a very blurred mental picture is possible under such conditions. The old pedagogues were exaggerating a half-truth when they insisted on exactitude before everything else, but perhaps they did less harm than those modern teachers who despise hard fact, and feed their scholars on cream-buns and chocolate instead of honest roast beef and potatoes. We need a skeleton—a bony, ugly, uninteresting skeleton—and on this must be superimposed the warm flesh and blood of an actual, vital, human study of History.

The third thing that we shall aim at will be interest in ideas. To little boys everything must be presented pictorially and dramatically, for they are almost exclusively interested in the world of flesh and blood, not in the realm of thought. As they advance and develop they will begin to analyse—to group events in a sequence, to trace tendencies, to perceive relations. We might almost form a definition, and say that the object of higher History teaching will be the apperception of relations, and it is in this direction that the true conative end of the study of History lies. The boys will begin by tracing out some sequence, such as the development of English colonial power from 1756–63, and will gradually advance into the realm of ideas, until Political Science becomes more than an empty name to them. It is through the study of History that the true approach lies at once to Geography, to Politics, to Political Economy, and to the study of social questions. Moreover, as I shall try to show later on, work of this kind will imperceptibly change a boy's whole view of life, as he begins to look at most questions from the historic, rather than from the *à priori*, point of view.

When we are forming our ideal of the practical results to be attained, we shall have to settle another very important question. Are we to aim at turning out historical scholars, or merely men with the beginnings of historical culture? The same question has been put to different Universities and

to different lands, and has been answered in various ways. Speaking very broadly, we may say that the average German University aims at turning out graduates who shall research for themselves. In England, Cambridge stands for exact scientific scholarship, and the *Cambridge Modern History* probably represents her spirit better than Mr. Trevelyan's fascinating sketch *England in the Age of Wycliffe*. Oxford boasts able representatives of both schools, but it would, I think, be true to say that, in her view, History should be read rather for the sake of a broad general culture than in the spirit of minute research. The *Short History of the English People* of Mr. Green and the recent *Lectures on Bonapartism* of Mr. Fisher both embody the ideal of History, based on true scholarship, but illuminated to a very high degree by culture and the power of ideas. In London Prof. Pollard is aiming at teaching History as the explanation of the present and the guide to the future, and is, at the same time, by Seminar-class work, leading all his pupils—of course, on a very small scale—forward to research. The many will never trouble their heads about original authorities after they have taken their degree, but the few will understand how to use documents, and will have the incentive to work for the M.A. and D.Litt. degrees, which are given for original work alone. This seems to me to be the true idea. We want historical tastes for all, but we need "source books" and Seminar work for the best of our scholars as they work up the school, so that there may be a net to catch the boys with the tastes and the ability to devote their lives to one of the greatest of all studies.

Such are our aims—or a part of them, at any rate; but we work with severe limitations, and a frank recognition of these limitations is an indispensable necessity if we are to succeed. The most we can bargain for is a four years' course of two hours a week, with one year below the course for small boys who are caught young, and one year above it for the favoured few who are working for History scholarships at one of the Universities. This will mean that Classical History proper (apart from the Classical myths and stories, which will come in the year below the course) will have to be left to the fourth year for boys on the Classical side, and will not come into the two-hours-a-week scheme at all for boys on the Modern side. Classical History should be taught by the man who teaches Classics, and should work in with the reading of Herodotus, Livy, Tacitus, and the other great Greek and Roman historians. "Other heights in other lives, God willing," but a man who has taken a degree in Modern History

cannot be expected to know very much about Athens and Rome. Specialisation is becoming more and more the order of the day, and it is impossible for the average man to take two schools at Cambridge or London, or "Greats" and History Finals at Oxford. It is sheer waste to divorce Classical History from Classical Documents, and Ancient History must be taught by the Classical master, even if, in the fourth year, other History is excluded from the Classical boy's time-table.

It looks, too, as if European History will only come in by asides and digressions. This will, to a great extent, depend on the ability of the form. With a brilliant form it may be possible to treat great movements, such as the Crusades, the struggle between the Church and the secular power, the Renaissance, the Reformation, the great wars, etc., from the European rather than from the insular point of view. This would be much more logical than the other method, and much more interesting; but there is no doubt that it presents great difficulties, both to the boy and to the master. Many new factors have to be reckoned with, many new names to be learned, and the overworked teacher will find it extremely difficult to select his facts and to be really lucid. A good form might work Mr. Myers's book of General History along with their own text-book of English History, but that will really be doing three hours' work in two. It may be a forlorn hope, but it will be a noble one.

The other method is one of digression. The form will, of course, have note-books, and when the class comes to such a question as the foreign policy of Henry VIII., the master will give a sketch of the growth of the Burgundian-Hapsburg power, and of the relations between the Empire and France. The time will have to be saved out of barren periods of English History. Small boys will not get much profit out of the reign of Edward II. or from a detailed study of the Wars of the Roses, and the History staff might agree at the beginning of each school year which parts of the work are to be cut, and which portions of European History are to be included.[1]

There is another very important question of method which must be answered before we can proceed to draw up our scheme. Are we to work on what is called the "concentric" plan, covering the whole ground three times at least in four years; or are we to use an "intensive" method, covering very much less ground each year, but covering it far more

[1] For information on this and kindred questions, Command 599 and S. Memorandum 6, lately published by the Board of Education, are invaluable.

thoroughly? I think that if our object is to grind as much hard fact as possible into our wretched pupils, we shall choose the concentric system, for the fact of going over the work again and again certainly has the tendency to make historical knowledge come, even though historical wisdom may linger. But for sheer dulness this "small boy, small book," method would easily beat all others. An adult can often enjoy a summary of History, such as those of Lavisse and Michelet, because he can appreciate the value and interest of generalisations and ideas. But a boy of twelve or thirteen gets little from a condensed text-book in the way of the good stories which his soul loves; for him the book is pemmican and nothing more, and he goes on to the next year's course as one who, by reason of growth, is forced to devour more pemmican, but who likes it none the better, and is preparing already to swell the blatant ranks of those lost souls who solemnly and unblushingly cry to a sorrowing heaven that "History is no use." So we shall prefer an intensive system, which covers the ground of English History in three years, treating the early periods biographically and pictorially, and gradually working on to a more advanced treatment in the second and third years. This method is perfectly feasible to-day because there is an excellent series of text-books written by Miss Clara Thomson along these lines. Part I. goes up to 1066, and is written in the easiest style for small boys; Part II. goes up to 1272, and is rather longer; Part III. ends at 1485; Part IV. at 1603; Part V. at 1688; and Part VI. at 1815. In the History scheme of Manchester Grammar School the series is worked through in four years, with Justin McCarthy's *History of our Times* thrown in, but this scheme starts with boys of eleven, and I am planning my scheme with the idea of beginning the regular course at thirteen. It may, perhaps, be well to fill in this outline a little more clearly.

The work of the year below the course would be arranged for the mixed multitude of little boys who come to a Secondary School between ten and twelve years of age. They are generally dear little people, and one does not want Mrs. Be-done-by-as-you-did to write on their early graves—

> Affliction sore long time I bore,
> And cramming was in vain;
> Till heaven did please my woes to ease
> With water on the brain.

History to them should mean stories, acting, and poetry, and the master will have to combine the work of actor-manager

with that of nursemaid and teacher. Mr. W. S. Dann, of Kendal Grammar School,[1] has sent me the scheme used at the Demonstration School of the London Day Training College, and here the first year is given up to myths—Greek, Roman, Gothic, and Teutonic—and the second to stories drawn from the East, the Classics, the Celts, and from English History. I would suggest that a year's work might be done in myths and stories, and that the master who takes this class should be the very best the school possesses. Work of this kind would give practice in oral reproduction, in writing, in spelling, and in dictation; it would stimulate interest and imagination, and would, I believe, be the best possible avenue to the true study of History. No text-book should be used, and a good deal, though not all, of the work done by the boys should be oral. The teacher could use Kingsley's *Heroes*, some book of Celtic legend, *Puck of Pook's Hill*, J. R. Green, and, if his Head were more than ordinarily human, he might let the class guess that there is a noble work called the *Just So Stories*, by one of the most charming of English literary men. The more interesting parts of our history before the Conquest might be worked through, and this would ease the task in the first year of the course proper.

In this first year of the course, the period from 1066–1485 would be studied. Lack of space forbids me to give more than a passing word to any of the interesting points that claim attention. The work should still be graphic and pictorial, and the more little games that can be worked in, the better. One can manage a very effective tableau of a homage scene round the teacher's daïs, with the smallest boy in the form resplendent in a shiny gown, receiving the homage of his tallest baron. A chessboard and a form will serve for the Exchequer Court, and we shall have to be careful that the boys do not tilt at each other's faces in the playground. The blackboard has been discussed *ad nauseam*, but the clever teacher will use it for all that, and he will know that playing with plasticine is a fascinating employment, and that Historical Geography and plans of battles grow almost interesting when you can work them out in plasticine on cardboard—and your clothes. At Manchester Grammar School we have graded History lantern-lectures for sets of forms, to illustrate the social life of the period that is being read, and these are distinctly useful, although they entail a good deal of extra work on the staff. But all reforms in

[1] I would take this opportunity of thanking Mr. Dann for countless suggestions, which alone have made it possible for me to write this article.

education seem to do that. In this period a judicious selection will be very necessary. Early Constitutional History is particularly interesting to the adult mind, but it means little to a boy of thirteen. On the other hand, the Crusades are an ideal subject for him, and they afford a wide avenue into European History—they are the Belfort Gap of this period into the lands beyond. Any existing local antiquities will be visited, and neighbouring churches will, if we are fortunate, give ideas of architecture and of armour. There will, too, be books of historical poems and ballads in the school library, and these will be more useful, perhaps, in this early stage than in any other.

The second year's work will take us from 1485 to 1688, and we shall expect the average age of our form to be about fourteen at the beginning of the year. Description and dramatic interest will still be exceedingly important, but two factors in our teaching will now be more pronounced. The one is European History, which is absolutely inseparable from English History all through the period. Even if it can only be taught by digressions, those digressions will be frequent and important, and our boys will have to learn the art of taking notes. The other is the growing necessity of analysis, and by that I mean the grouping together of scattered facts in sequences. For instance, a class may be set to analyse for itself, with a little help, the causes of the English Civil War:

(*a*) The financial dispute;
(*b*) Religious differences;
(*c*) The growth of the middle class;
(*d*) Privileges of Parliament;

and so on, with as many subdivisions as may be advisable. This method appears to me to have a true conative value—immensely more so than the delightful suggestion of an eminent Professor of Education that the teacher should laboriously copy out original documents and hand them round for the criticism of the form. Essays, too, will now be valuable, although the burden of essay-correcting with forms of thirty boys soon becomes almost intolerable. The point to remember is that the class itself must think and group and talk, and that it is not a soulless, inert mass, into which knowledge may be pumped at a certain number of gallons per hour. The ability of the teacher will be shown by the extent to which he makes his boys do the work for him. There is something wrong when the master crawls limply down to the Common Room while the boys romp merrily along the passages. They should feel that virtue

has gone out of them in hard thinking, as well as in mere parrot-like repetition of facts learned. It is in this second stage that "source-books" (to employ a barbarous Americanism) will be invaluable for use as reference-books by the boys themselves. Three or four years ago there was a boom in this kind of literature, and Mr. N. L. Frazer has done exceedingly important work in collecting and translating documents. There will come a time when every locality has its own "source-book" of Local History, but that time is not yet. These extracts can be read by boys for their essays, and for any special question which interests them, and an approach to Seminar work can be made in this stage by detailing certain members of the form to read and report on definite documents contained in the sources. Moreover, some one point, such as the relation of the Civil War to the district, might be taken and worked out at greater length, so that a microscopic, as well as a telescopic, view of History may, to some small extent at all events, be gained.

In the third year our form will average fifteen years in September, and we shall have to cover, as best we may, the immense stretch of years and events from 1688 to the present day. We may have to seek help from our English Literature hours, and read the boys some book such as Fitchett's *Tale of the Great Mutiny*, to relieve the strain. It will now become possible to make incursions into the realm of ideas, and our forms will find themselves face to face with the colonial problem, and Turgot's famous dictum, with the growth of Cabinet Government and the Constitution, with the strife between absolutism, limited monarchy, and republicanism, and, in fact, with as many of the great questions of the day as we care to include. Everything to-day, from football to homework, has to have a conative value, and while it is very difficult, and not always very profitable, to know what educationists mean by their terms, History work of this kind should be conative indeed, for it means thought for scholar and teacher, and thought is what we want. The teacher will sometimes lecture and ask questions, and he will often give notes, but, more and more as the year goes on, the members of the form will themselves work up various questions, and the dulness of their discourses will be patiently borne by the others who are waiting their turn to inflict themselves on the class.

The work of the fourth year will vary with circumstances. All the boys on the Classical side may have to be switched off on to the study of Classical History, although one hopes that time may be found for this in other ways. In some schools, again, that public nuisance, the Matriculation, may

lower heavily on the horizon. Public examinations are the teacher's bane, both because he has to choose work that will tell in examinations rather than work that will make character, and because the papers set in many examinations, and particularly in the London Matriculation, often seem to have been set by owlish Professors, who have as much knowledge of boys as they have of football. If a Secondary School teacher of wide experience occasionally found his way on to an examination board, we might have a different state of affairs. Still, the examinations remain, and have to be considered, and so the fourth year will in many cases be one of rapid revision, with a careful selection of important questions and great attention to the English style of the form. It will be a year of the gathering in of fruit, and a knowledge of the whole will be applied to a consideration of the parts.

Where no examination has to be feared, it might in some schools be practicable to specialise on one period, and to read it, if possible, with some one original authority and as many good secondary authorities as time allows. There is no reason why some period of the French Revolution should not be studied, and read, to a great extent, in French. The French historians are very lucid and very easy reading, while they have a great deal to teach English authors in clearness and coherency of style and plan. The form would, by now, have decreased in size, and would therefore be far more manageable, so that more time could be given to individuals, and greater attention could be paid to their English style and their private reading.

Probably the History staff would, by this time, have discovered a few boys capable of doing good work in the University History Schools, and at the end of the fourth year some of these might be worked for scholarships. Under these circumstances their course will be somewhat narrowly determined by University requirements, and so very little needs to be added to the statements of the Calendars. What is wanted is not a very large assortment of duly labelled fact, but a habit of mind, a general historical culture, a wide interest in art, literature, and social questions. This is especially true of Oxford, and of the Brackenbury Scholarship at Balliol, which is the blue ribbon of all Historical scholarships, and I think this attitude of examiners takes away the sting of the objection against working for prizes. It seems to be a general rule that the brightest boys are unable to go to the Universities without help, and yet, if they need scholarships, they do not need to "cram." All that is required,

is the fullest and most all-round development. For this methods are useless. We need personalities.

Indeed, one becomes more and more convinced, as the months go on, that personality and not method is the dominant factor in the educational problem. The conscientious teacher is tempted to read Blue-books and Reports, instead of getting into his footer "shorts," and going off to learn something of the actual boy by becoming one himself for forty minutes each way. Every master makes his own methods, and if he is the inventive, boy-loving man he ought to be, will find a different dodge every month, and ring the changes on his *répertoire*. We want the right aim in teaching History, for that is the main thing, and while there are many Sauls and but few Davids in the profession, good execution may be done with breastplate and sword, or with sling and round pebbles from the brook. We need knowledge of our subject—a wide and deep and intimate knowledge. We shall ever be students, and we shall labour to keep abreast of the important research-work of our day, for when once we slacken off we shall become dull. We want a vivid imagination, that will breathe warm, radiant life into still flesh, and we shall find that imagination will be kindled by foreign travel and by thought and conversation. But, more than all, we need to know our boys, and to come down from our desks among them. We want to keep human; we want desperately badly to keep young, or we shall never be teachers of History. "God help all schoolmasters; they need it," as Kipling's Chaplain said.

ARTHUR J. CLARK.

CHAPTER II

TEACHING METHODS (*continued*)

GEOGRAPHY

BEFORE laying down any definite scheme of geographical teaching, it is necessary to put forward a few general premises on the meaning of education. If these are accepted, it is hoped that the principles of teaching Geography, as here laid down, will follow as a logical consequence.

To train or educate a young boy or girl, it is first of all necessary to make the mind think and reason for itself; the natural inquisitiveness of the young must be encouraged, and the mind made to answer its own questions as far as possible for itself. Secondly, the time will come when thoughts and conclusions have to be written down or described to others in clear and suitable words, to attain which end a literary training is essential.

No doubt the more unconsciously the child can be made to reach these objects the more successful will be the result. Gentle, artistic, tactful leading creates the full perfection of human development; brutal, masterful, stern disciplinary methods only turn out a mediocre machine-made article.

To make the mind think for itself, it is obvious that only a few fundamental facts must be supplied; the details must be found out as necessary consequences. Mere information is practically useless. The acquisition of knowledge by personal initiative is alone valuable. The Heuristic method of teaching must be insisted on. Any "subject" may be chosen as a means. In ordinary conditions, for example, "Science," Geometry, Nature Study, and Geography can be used by a skilful teacher for the purpose of thought training.

For the purpose of literary training the Classics, History, and English Literature are commonly chosen; but it requires a great teacher to avoid treating these subjects as a collection of words and facts. In all schools it is safe to say that nine-tenths of the time given to such subjects is wasted on mere memory training and useless "cram" or grammatical drill. History especially, as at present taught, suffers in these respects.

The works of great authors, classical, historical, or romantic, ought rather to be taught not for what they tell but for how they tell it. Literary success must be attained chiefly by unconscious imitation, not by mere "memory" discipline or artificial systems. It must, of course, be admitted that the above subjects are not entirely "literary." The Classics in a special sense are admirable as "thought trainers," if not explained by notes and translations.

Literature, just as much as thought training, must start from the natural standpoint. Children's stories, fairy tales, adventures true or imaginary, must all grow out of what the child can experience around him. The boy or girl must be able to imagine that he or she is taking part in every incident.

History ought to be so treated. It must be local, personal, and living. The old castle, or cathedral, or battlefield, the legend that often belongs to some well-known hill, or lake, or cave, must lead the child to wish to know something more about them. He is given a book of local romance, and soon he is drawn further into the history of the time.

It is worse than useless to cram into the young brain a mass of historical facts and dates, such as so often fill the pages of a school history, as if the mere acquisition of so much knowledge were an end in itself.

Geography, like History, has suffered much in the past from such a treatment. It is much easier, however, to teach Geography from what has been here laid down as the correct educational point of view.

An ideal course of geographical training, irrespective of difficulties in practice, which will be dealt with later on, might be applied from the age of eight to twenty somewhat as follows:

The child should be taken into the country and made to see the things around him. Cliffs, valleys, streams, hills, trees, flowers, cornfields, birds, and so on, all have their geographical lesson; but this must be taught unconsciously as far as possible. How did the rocks get there? why are they in layers? how can fossils be accounted for? why is the stream muddy? how is its bed cut out? how are the valleys and hills formed? why do trees grow in certain spots only? why do some sorts shed their leaves in winter? why are their leaves of such different shapes? why is the oak so unlike the fir in shape? why do some flowers love the marsh, while others only grow on the high moors? how are their structures adapted to their surroundings? why do the swallows come in the summer, or the fieldfares in the winter?—such are the

kind of questions which can be suggested. The answers, half supplied by the teacher, half by the taught, will prove an excellent introduction to the appreciation of physical surroundings.

Heat and cold, day and night, rain and snow, wind and calm, the varying length of daylight, the apparent movement of stars and moon and sun, lead on to another series of problems, the answers to which, if arrived at by experimental and Heuristic methods, are of immense educational value, and the best of all foundations upon which to bûild the future geographical course.

Indoors, the natural inquisitiveness of youth is drawn to pictures of scenery, peoples, industries, and the like, and the love of books of travel and adventure is common to most healthy children. An interest in the various countries and peoples of the world is thus easily aroused, and hence comes the beginning of "foreign" geographical teaching.

Soon arises a need for a picture of the whole country talked about, and a map is produced. This requires explanation, and a simple course of instruction in plan-drawing is a natural outcome. A pencil, a ruler, a flat board, and an instrument for measuring angles are the only necessities for making a good sketch-plan of a room or garden or piece of country. Such practical surveying can be easily appreciated by a boy or girl of twelve years old. No technical terms need be introduced.

After such a course, the main principles of map-making can be arrived at without much difficulty.

As the home country or foreign country is studied in greater detail between the ages of twelve and twenty, the results of observations and experiences gained by previous nature study are continually being applied, and the whole course of geographical training resolves itself into a system of cause and effect. The climate, products, industries, centres of population, trade routes of any country are all connected by rational means; one follows from another almost as inevitably as the dawn comes after darkness.

Such, then, is a rough indication of what an "ideal course of geographical training" might be.

In practice, however, all kinds of difficulties at once arise, and in most cases the difficulties have entirely triumphed. The ordinary old-fashioned school course in Geography was about as bad as it could be. The text-book was a collection of bald statements of facts, physical, mathematical, commercial, statistical, without any attempt at correlation. The Atlas was made up of a collection of reference maps, full of

minute names of unimportant places, with "caterpillar" mountain chains wandering at will over any unoccupied space. The pupil was crammed as though he were destined to be a letter-sorter in a universal post-office, or a grocer's assistant, whose sole duty was to know from what countries certain products might be procured.

Such a state of things no doubt grew up as the result of teachers finding themselves confronted with large classes, to whom they were compelled by circumstances to teach a subject of which they themselves knew nothing. Something had to be done, so a class-book full of facts was procured, put into the hands of the pupils, and "got up" under severe discipline. The results as shown by examinations would often be reported upon as "excellent."

Luckily, of late years, such a picture has been growing less familiar. The time has now come when the "ideal" teaching can be more nearly aimed at, and a working compromise suggested between the two extremes.

Supposing that the class averages twenty-four, and that the teacher, although he may have no geographical training, is a man who desires to teach, very fair results can be attained by the following scheme, which can be applied easily in schools where the age of the pupils lies between twelve and nineteen:

The amount of time apportioned to geography will be either one or two hours a week. The whole school must be taught on a definite system; there must be no overlapping. At the same time each teacher must be allowed as much freedom as possible in his methods. A fixed course of two, three, or four years must be schemed. The writer suggests a two-years' course as follows: 1st term, Principles of Geography; 2nd term, the Home Country (British Isles); 3rd term, Europe; 4th term, Asia and North America; 5th term, Central and South America and Africa; 6th term, the British Empire reviewed more in detail. For the lower part of the school these topics would be dealt with in as general and elementary a way as possible; for the middle part of the school, the same topics would be dealt with in a more extended manner; for the upper school, the same course would be still further amplified. Every part of the school would be doing "The Principles of Geography" at the same time, and so on through all the terms of the two years. Thus a boy or girl who began at the lowest class and moved up slowly to the top in six years would have gone through the course three times, each time adding something on to the previously acquired training. A quicker mover would more

rapidly assimilate the system. All would thus be satisfactorily dealt with.

Now for the details of each term's work.

First Term: The Principles of Geography.—The actual earth's surface as seen by man is the natural starting-point. It is easy to reach the conclusion that various kinds of rock form the entire surface beneath the soil. These kinds can be readily examined, and roughly classified by their appearance. The question of the origin of these different rocks naturally arises. The crystals may have been formed as the result of a cooling process; the earth may once have been a mass of heated particles or gases, and have gradually grown colder, and so igneous rocks can be accounted for. This naturally leads on to an inquiry into volcanic phenomena. Then pieces of rock with layers and fossils are produced, and the general outlines of geological history are elicited as to sedimentary rocks; and so the story gradually develops into the causes of scenery (earth-folds, denudation, glacial action, *et cetera*). This part of the subject, if properly dealt with by means of a simple collection of rock specimens and of as many good pictures of typical scenery as possible, appeals irresistibly to the learners, and brings out their powers of thought in an astonishing manner. The distribution of land and water, of mountain and plain, on the earth's surface may here be aptly introduced by means of good diagrams and maps.

A few simple observations upon the varying length of daylight bring about the desire to know the physical causes: and soon the class is led into a little astronomical geography as to the causes of the seasons. Here a good "tellurian" is the best aid; but, failing that, the teacher can fix a point in the middle of the room as the sun's position, and, by placing a large globe (with axis accurately inclined) in its various seasonal positions round the room, can elicit from the class the desired solution.

The meaning of the zones follows as a corollary. Tides may be kept for the older classes, where the course is repeated.

The weather has an interest for all, and a talk about barometers, thermometers, and rain gauges soon brings about the desire to know something about the causes of our climate. A series of observations, taken by the class, or quoted from a meteorological report, makes a good starting point. The controlling causes of variations in heat and wind and rain are always interesting to the taught, and bring out admirably their powers of observation and deduction.

"Climatic Maps" can here be conveniently introduced. Each pupil can be made to draw rough maps for himself from given data, *e.g.* an outline of the British Isles is quickly traced: the average January temperatures of twenty leading places in various parts are given, and the pupil is made to fill in his own isotherms and to shade in the colder or warmer areas as directed. Similarly, Isobaric and Rainfall maps can be constructed. They must be simple and they must be entirely done and understood by the pupil. A weather report from a daily paper is often good material.

Climate naturally leads on to vegetation: the conditions necessary for various kinds of plant growth are always full of interest, and can be made of great educational value. Here good pictures are most useful. It is curious how often the superficial answer, "Because there is so much sand," is given to the question "Why is this region a desert?" The connection between "no plant growth" and "no rainfall" or "insufficient heat" is easily brought out by questioning the pupil.

A large detailed globe may now be shown to the class, and the question asked, "How can you determine your position on that globe?"

Make a drawing of a class-room and mark your position in that. A convenient way of recording it would be to divide the whole into even squares and say which square you are on. Why not do the same for the globe? But you can't make exact squares fit a spherical surface; then you must invent some other system. How has nature solved the difficulty in dividing up an orange? So gradually we come to the meaning of lines of latitude and longitude and their use. A very little geometrical knowledge is here required to understand angular measurement.

The various methods of transferring maps of the globe on to flat surfaces can now be introduced.

For the lower pupils it is sufficient just to indicate the difficulties of the operation, and to make them realise that maps of large areas of the earth's surface must be used with due caution. The comparison of Greenland and Africa on a Mercator map and on a Homolographic Projection brings out the point at once. Fuller details of map projections can be reserved for later stages.

A little actual surveying in the field or class-room may now be attempted.

A full equipment of plane tables, sighting rulers, and compasses is of course desirable, if time and money are available. Otherwise much can be done in the class-room

with ruler and protractor. *E.g.*, a base line of ten feet is measured along a desk or table, the angles are taken by the teacher or a pupil from each end to salient points in the room, and the whole class can be made to draw a plan to scale in a comparatively short time. An extension of such a method makes it possible to imagine a survey of any given piece of country, and so the method in which maps are built up can be realised.

Here the Ordnance Map may be introduced and its meaning discovered. Contours can be easily explained by diagram or experiment. A copy of the local one-inch ordnance map with contours can be put in the hand of each learner, and any number of questions can be asked thereon. It is extraordinary how few, even amongst grown-up people, can read a map. A little practice soon makes the pupils realise the great amount of information which can be deduced from a good detailed map. The contoured sheet ought to be compared as much as possible with the actual view seen or with photographs. The main streams and water partings can be followed. The reasons for the direction of roads and railways, the causes of the position of villages and towns and so on, make excellent thought training. Local history can be interwoven with the geographical surroundings with telling results.

Second Term: The British Isles.—In natural order it is best to consider in more detail the aspects of our own country.

The reading of the local ordnance map leads on to a desire to discover something rather further afield. The county or surrounding counties may well be treated of, in connection, if possible, with the county history.

Then the British Isles as a whole may be considered: their position on the globe, their comparative size, their surface features, climate, vegetation, minerals, communications, industries, trade, and population. Each topic must be made to lead on to the next. Climate depends upon position on the globe and surface features; vegetation on climate, and so forth.

Before introducing any figures of area, height, distance, or population, it is most important to give the pupils definite ideas to start with, something well known to compare with the figures given. A square mile, a hundred square miles, 100,000 square miles, must be realised before it is of any use at all to say that Australia is 3,000,000 square miles. A hill of 1,000 feet above sea-level must mean something definite, before any heights of mountains are mentioned. Units for comparison must be taken: say, 100,000 square miles (*i.e.* British Isles without Scotland north of Clyde and Forth) for area, 1,000 feet for height (take some local hill), 100 miles for

distance (say London to Birmingham), 100,000 inhabitants for town population (illustrate by nearest big town), and 1,000,000 for the population of any country.

A little geological teaching is of great help in describing and accounting for the surface features of the British Isles; and serves to bring out the arrangement of the coal fields, which are of such enormous influence in determining the distribution of industries and population. Climatic maps showing seasonal isotherms and rainfall, Vegetation and Population maps, are almost a necessity. Place-names and historic photographs can be made to bring into vivid realisation the gradual development of the country. Industries and Trades are best dealt with by a series of diagrams constructed on squared paper from Government returns. The general truths are thus graphically taken into the mind, and the causes which have led to these results naturally call for investigation.

Third Term: Europe.—The circle, ever expanding, now leads on to a consideration of neighbouring lands, and the continent of Europe may be chosen. This must be treated in exactly the same way as the British Isles, and detailed information avoided as much as possible.

Fourth Term: Asia and North America.—The two continents in somewhat similar latitudes to our own can well be taken next. The great similarity between these two continents makes a comparative study most useful.

Fifth Term: Central and South America and Africa.—The two great tropical areas can now be treated side by side. The comparative treatment again yields excellent results.

Sixth Term: British Empire.—The pupil ought now to be in a position to realise fairly well all possible conditions on the earth's surface. The more that is known scientifically about the geography of the Empire the better, from a patriotic point of view. It is easy and most instructive to apply previously gained training to the leading units of which the Empire is composed.

Books.—The notes given below do not pretend to be exhaustive. They simply reproduce some of the impressions gained by the writer in fifteen years of practice.

CLASS ATLASES.—The old-fashioned ones, crowded with names made up from plates out of a reference atlas, must be avoided at all costs. The ideal atlas will contain physical and climatic maps treated boldly on general lines, a few so-called political maps, and several pages of good statistical diagrams.

Philip's *Atlas of Comparative Geography for Junior Classes* is an excellent cheap Atlas. *The London School Atlas* has

many good maps. *A Progressive Atlas of Comparative Geography*, by P. H. L'Estrange (published by Philip & Sons), fulfils many of the above demands. It also contains Test Maps, which save much time in teaching *where* places are. Climatic and Vegetation Maps are lacking in most other good school atlases.

The Diagram Atlas, by Dickinson and Andrews, has a good collection of unnamed physical maps.

TEXT-BOOKS—A great many good books have been issued in the last five years. The difficulty is to get a book, or a series of books, which will suit all parts of a school. A teacher might well examine:

The *Oxford Geographies*, by A. J. Herbertson (published by the Clarendon Press).

Prof. L. W. Lyde's books, *e.g. Man and His Markets*, or *Commercial Geography of the British Empire.*

H. J. Mackinder's *Our Island Home* and *Lands beyond the Channel* make excellent readers for junior classes.

World Pictures, by J. B. Reynolds, a good reader for beginners.

The Regional Geographies (British Isles, Europe, etc., by J. B. Reynolds).

Descriptive Geography from Original Sources, by E. D. and A. J. Herbertson (Africa, Asia, Europe, North America, etc.), an excellent series of readers for middle and upper classes.

A Reader in Physical Geography, by R. E. Dodge (Longmans, Green & Co.), one of the many excellent American books on Physical Geography.

It is difficult to systematise the teaching of Geography in a school, unless some definite scheme is adopted for *all* classes. To meet this difficulty the writer has brought out a book, carrying out the principles above described, with all necessary maps especially made for the purpose. No other atlas is then required, and a multiplicity of text-books is avoided. The very favourable reception given to this book by teachers justifies its mention here.

A Progressive Course of Comparative Geography, by P. H. L'Estrange (published by Philip & Sons, 32, Fleet Street).

REFERENCE BOOKS FOR THE TEACHER:

Hints to Teachers on the Choice of Geographical Books for Reference and Reading, by H. R. Mill.

The International Geography (edited by H. R. Mill) is full of good things. The British Isles is the best part of it. The whole book is now published in parts for school use. The British Isles section might be adopted with advantage in many schools.

The Distribution of Rainfall over the Land, by A. J. Herbertson, with monthly maps and tables.

Elementary Physical Geography, by W. M. Davis (published by Ginn & Co.).

Maps: Their Uses and Construction, by G. J. Morrison (published by E. Stanford).

Geographical Diagrams, by H. J. Snape (published by A. & C. Black).

The Statesman's Year-Book, for statistics.

A very useful terminal publication is the *Geographical Teacher*, the organ of the Geographical Association, to which all teachers of Geography would do well to belong (Secretary's address: 39, Greenholm Road, Eltham Park, S.E.).

Outlines of the Earth's History, by Shaler; good American book.

Geography: Structural, Physical, and Practical, by J. W. Gregory (published by Blackie & Son).

The World's Commercial Products (published by Pitman). Very good illustrations.

REFERENCE ATLASES:

The Harmsworth Atlas is very full and accurate, with many excellent diagrams at the end.

The Atlas of Meteorology (Bartholomew) is splendid for that part of the subject.

Apparatus.—As far as possible the Geographical Teacher's room should be a Geographical Laboratory. Here are some suggested fittings:

Globes.—As large as possible (1) with physical features boldly coloured (without names); (2) with slate surface (for chalk drawing) marked with outlines of continents and lines of latitude and longitude. The globe may conveniently be hung from the ceiling near the teacher's desk.

Boards.—Besides ordinary blackboard, have if possible the "Recorder Board" with a roll of white paper for permanent records. (Issued by Philip & Tacey, Norwich Street, Fetter Lane, E.C.)

Wall Maps.—Preferably without names and unvarnished. The famous German Physical Wall Maps (Sydow-Habenicht) have now been equalled by several British productions: *e.g.* *Philip's Comparative Series* (published with or without names). This includes a World Map on Mollweide's Homolographic Projection, a great advance on Mercator for teaching purposes.

The series published by Stanford under H. J. Mackinder's supervision. The Palestine Map in this series is the best yet published; it makes biblical topography most interesting.

Macmillan's Orographical Map of Europe (Dickinson and Andrews).

A proper set of maps, consisting of World Map, six-inch Ordnance Map of District (coloured by contours, if possible), British Isles, Europe, Asia, Africa, North America, South America, Australasia, and Palestine, may be conveniently stored in an upright cupboard (on castors) which also serves as a map elevator (as furnished by Messrs. Philip & Tacey, Norwich Street, Fetter Lane, E.C.).

Pictures.—Large photographic wall pictures are of great use.

Philip's *Geographical Wall Pictures*, edited by the writer, are designed to meet this want. They have been carefully selected to suit his system.

Hand Pictures are issued by Messrs. A. & C. Black. The Perry Pictures (Malden, Mass., U.S.A.) are often useful. Picture postcards can be easily collected.

Lantern Slides.—"The Diagram Series," issued under the auspices of the Geographical Association, designed by B. B. Dickinson and A. W. Andrews. (Apply to the Diagram Co., West Barnes Lane, New Malden, Surrey.)

A good physical series can be had from Messrs. G. Philip & Son, prepared under the direction of Prof. Gregory.

Stereoscopic Apparatus.—Much can be done by this, if it can be afforded. Full particulars can be had from Messrs. Underwood & Underwood, of London and New York.

Specimens.—A collection of geological specimens is of great value. These can be used and explained without introducing much geological language. The writer has prepared a typical set, which can be got through Messrs. Philip & Son, 32, Fleet Street, E.C. Specimens of leading vegetable and other products (*e.g.*, rice plants, Indian corn, raw cotton, and so on).

Surveying Instruments.—*e.g.*, plane table, sighting ruler, and compass. Special sets are issued by Andrew H. Baird, Lothian Street, Edinburgh.

Meteorological Instruments.—A daily weather record may be kept in class-room by means of thermometer, barometer, and rain-gauge (properly placed and protected).

Weather charts, as issued by the Meteorological Office and U.S.A. Weather Bureau, ought to be on view.

For fuller particulars of a Geographical Laboratory, see *The Geographical Teacher* (No. 22, autumn, 1908; published by G. Philip & Son), article by A. T. Simmons. This number also contains an excellent paper on Orographical Maps, by A. J. Herbertson.

P. H. L'ESTRANGE.

CHAPTER II

TEACHING METHODS (*continued*)

MATHEMATICS

THE closing years of the nineteenth century witnessed the last phase of a state of affairs that had long existed in the world of mathematics. At that time ritual was rife everywhere. Arithmetic was still under the influence of Colenso, and was governed by the strictest of rules and conventions. The formality and even the sequence of Euclid's Elements were regarded as a fetish to be worshipped by all who would know Geometry. In Algebra the cult of the artificial reigned supreme. As the new century dawned, however, signs were not wanting of impending change. The Association for the Improvement of Geometrical Teaching (known later as the Mathematical Association) had some time before laid the mine which was to put an end to the long reign of Euclid. Professors of engineering and of practical science had been loud in their complaints concerning the futility of school mathematics, and the chorus of discontent reached its height at the meeting of the Educational Section of the British Association held at Glasgow in 1901. From that time change was rapid. The warning given on that momentous occasion that the new teaching would require better teachers was not untimely, for there are always grave dangers attaching to a revolution, and the present instance proved no exception to the rule. The passing of the Pons Asinorum was followed by much useless "grubbing with graphs and pottering with protractors" by unskilled amateurs in mathematics, pushing their new wares with the zeal of an American hustler, to an extent that had never been contemplated by those responsible for the change in public opinion. For a time the word Graph assumed a blessedness almost mesopotamic in character, which seemed to forebode the rise of a new cult, whose devotees threatened to outnumber the followers of Mahomet. What ultimate effect this upheaval will have on the teaching of mathematics time alone can show. It would be manifestly unfair to pass judgment until those who have been taught at school under the new régime have themselves in course of

time become teachers. By that time, too, some stability will have been attained, and it will be possible to preserve the balance more equably between the old and the new, extracting what is best from each.

To turn to the practical side of the subject, Arithmetic would be much more useful, from an educational point of view, if examiners would give a really large proportion of marks for good method. It is surprising how many examinees fail to reach even a respectable standard in style and neatness, although their answers may be quite accurate; so one is forced to the conclusion that a good deal of arithmetic had better not be taught at all if it is to be taught in the manner prevalent to-day. Moreover, the majority of Secondary Schools receive, and continue the education of, those who have learned a large part of their arithmetic at Elementary Schools. It is a pity, therefore, that some attempt is not made to improve matters at the fountain head, and get methods adopted, and really taught, which are customary in Secondary Schools and their Preparatory Classes. There is an unfortunate tendency, too, nowadays to neglect the cultivation of memory, and to disregard anything that savours of drudgery. Progress in arithmetic is retarded on this account, for the average boy does not know perfectly, as he ought to, his tables [N.B.—He probably knows all about the useless pole, but nothing of the chain or quarter-mile], the decimal fractions corresponding to such common fractions as $\frac{3}{8}$ and conversely, the simpler parts of £1, the squares of numbers up to 30, and their cubes up to 12. Further, his ideas of numbers and their divisors are so vague and ill-developed that he often fails to recognise any connection between such numbers as 132 and 1760, for example, and he wastes much valuable time by being unable at sight to decimalise money and to convert fractions to percentages, and *vice versa*. How many boys habitually use complementary addition, the Italian method, or the tests for divisibility? How many are aware of the principle underlying all work in common fractions—namely, that the value of a fraction is not changed by multiplying (as well as dividing) its numerator and denominator by the same quantity—and can utilise such knowledge by showing up correct solutions to the simplification of (i) $\frac{\frac{1}{2}-\frac{1}{3}}{2-\frac{1}{6}}$ or of (ii) $2{\cdot}63 \div {\cdot}125$, each in *one* step? Again, how many are there who really understand ratio, and, in dealing with a question involving an income tax of 11*d.* in the pound, can state at once without fuss that the net income is $\frac{229}{240}$ of the gross income, and so forth? Just one

point more. How often one sees boys fail over division by factors! Is not the failure due to lack of understanding? Are they ever taught to write out a solution in this manner?

$$3 \mid 257$$
$$11 \mid 85 \text{ threes} + 2 \text{ units}$$
$$7 \text{ thirty-threes} + 8 \text{ threes} + 2 \text{ units}$$
$$\therefore \text{ quotient} = 7, \text{ remainder} = 24 + 2 = 26.$$

Experience teaches that these are just a few of the small points that are helpful in arithmetic, and mark the parting of the ways between the expert and the inefficient. For the rest, it is advisable to select a good modern text-book, avoiding revised edition of old books, and to put only the examples in the hands of the pupils. A large proportion of the work done should be mental, but, where written work is necessary, proper explanations should invariably be given. Arithmetic would then be of great value educationally, quite apart from its practical uses.

By common consent it is customary to begin the teaching of Geometry with a preliminary course of experimental work. This course serves two purposes. It teaches (i) the use of instruments, not only for the purpose of measurement, but also for the construction of the simpler geometrical figures; (ii) the more important properties of these figures by experiment. The use of the graduated ruler presents no practical difficulties, but a beginner is liable to err in the case of the protractor until he is capable of differentiating at sight between an acute and an obtuse angle. These instruments being mastered, the pupil will naturally proceed to a series of exercises designed to teach him the facts concerning (*a*) angles at a point, (*b*) parallel straight lines, (*c*) the interior angles of a triangle, (*d*) the exterior angles of a convex polygon, (*e*) the base angles of an isosceles triangle. He should learn also how to draw perpendiculars and parallels, and how to construct triangles from given data. As a result of the last exercise it is possible to determine the conditions under which two triangles are necessarily congruent.

As mathematical teachers frequently complain that boys who are supposed to have gone through this preliminary course know very little of what it is intended to teach them, it is necessary to emphasise here the importance of one or two points in which failures are most frequent. In the first place, the drawing should be neat and accurate, and the pupil should be able to describe in his own words the simple constructions. Secondly, he should know the meanings of the common geometrical terms and phrases, and be capable

of using them in their proper connection. And lastly—this is by far the most important point—he should have made a list of, and committed to memory, a number of the cardinal facts of geometry, and should have acquired the power of applying them to numerical exercises and then to the solution of riders. A pupil who is incapable of doing this has mistaken the object of his work, and is really unfit to proceed.

At the end of this preliminary stage the crucial point in the teaching of geometry has to be faced—namely, the application of the theorems concerning congruent triangles to the solution of riders. A pupil who receives here a thorough grounding in producing a solution which is neat, orderly, and logical, will probably meet with no further check throughout the whole course in geometry. On the other hand, one who has muddled through this stage will assuredly be confronted with ever-recurring difficulties in his later work. One thing is of the utmost importance, namely the necessity of impressing upon every pupil that he must never make a statement in a geometrical proof which he cannot substantiate by reference to (i) the data of the question, (ii) the construction, if any, (iii) one of the cardinal facts of geometry, (iv) some truth which has been already established in a previous step of the rider upon which he is engaged. Riders of this type require great concentration and excessive care if the solution is to be worth anything—and no solution should be accepted unless perfect—so, from the point of view of mental discipline alone, their educational value is enormous. At this point, too, certain propositions, too numerous to mention in detail, will suggest themselves to the teacher as suitable to set to the class as riders, care being taken not to reveal the fact that they *are* propositions. At the same time, the experimental course may be developed so as to cover the subject of areas and the Theorem of Pythagoras (squared paper, of course, being used), and also the chief properties of the circle. There is no reason, moreover, why the subject of proportion in geometry should not be approached by means of similar triangles, and investigated experimentally; and this will naturally lead to an introduction to the trigonometrical ratios and easy problems in heights and distances. Some knowledge of the simpler solids is desirable, and much may be learned by constructing models from paper or cardboard. Lastly, it is not inadvisable to teach the drawing of plan and elevation in a few easy instances.

C'est le premier pas qui coûte. One may predict with some confidence that a beginner who has a thorough working knowledge of the course thus outlined will have no difficulty in working through almost any one of the many modern

text-books on geometry. He should in fact now revise the whole subject thoroughly. It must be left to each individual teacher to map out a course suited to the needs of the boys under his charge, and to decide what parts may be omitted with advantage. Some pupils may have to rehearse and practise writing out propositions prescribed by the syllabus of some public examination, and will thereby waste much valuable time which could be used to better purpose. Certain examining bodies have had the courage to abolish set books from their language examinations. Possibly they may realise some day that they will be doing a service to education by abolishing set book-work from their mathematical papers, and will set an example which others will follow. But that time is not yet. Meanwhile, teacher and taught must possess their souls in patience, consoling themselves with the thought that a day will surely come when even examiners will be called into account for their actions.

An intelligent teacher will have paved the way to the study of Algebra by the gradual introduction of symbols during the early stages of Arithmetic. On occasions innumerable he will have found it possible to generalise in this manner the fundamental laws common to arithmetic and algebra, and he is not likely to have let slip the golden opportunity, offered by the section on prime factors and their applications, of teaching the laws of indices, and, with them, the whole theory of H.C.F., L.C.M., involution, and evolution, as applied to monomials. In parenthesis one may ask, why is this all-important section of arithmetic persistently ignored in Elementary Schools? Further, in the treatment of simple interest, for example, or in questions on mensuration, he will doubtless have encouraged his pupils to establish their own formulæ. In this way a beginner, even on his first introduction to a text-book on algebra, is upon ground which is not altogether unfamiliar.

His work at the outset will be chiefly concerned with numerical substitutions and evaluations, and by this means he can verify identities and equations, and trace the changes in the value of such algebraic expressions as are suitable to graphic representation. Simple equations should undoubtedly be introduced at the very earliest opportunity; indeed there is much to be said in favour of using a simple problem as the basis of the first lesson in algebra, and thereby showing that the solution of the equation derived from it is only a means to an end. Here a few points are worthy of notice. First, the solution should be fully written out, each step being justified with reference to one of the fundamental axioms.

Secondly, the habit of testing every solution is well worth cultivating. The two most frequent kinds of error can best be illustrated by reference to such an equation as—

$$\frac{3x+1}{4} - \frac{7x+1}{6} = 1 - \frac{2x-1}{3}.$$

The first step in the solution would naturally read:

"Multiply both sides by 12
$\therefore 3(3x+1) - 2(7x+1) = 12 - 4(2x-1)$."

One finds by experience that an inaccurate solution can very often be traced to the omission of brackets in this line. It is imperative therefore to insist on their retention until the pupil is well advanced in algebra. No other difficulty is, as a rule, encountered, except the process of verification, when, to guard against mistakes in style, the following method is to be recommended:

Proof: When $x = 5$

Left-hand side $= \frac{16}{4} - \frac{36}{6} = 4 - 6 = -2$

Right-hand side $= 1 - \frac{9}{3} = 1 - 3 = -2$

$\therefore x = 5$ is the correct solution.

An elementary course should certainly omit, or rather postpone, such parts of algebra as long multiplication and division, difficult complex fractions and questions in H.C.F. and L.C.M., as also equations with literal coefficients; but the average boy should certainly know something of graphs, of factors, and of quadratic equations, and should be able to use tables of logarithms. The question arises, to what extent should graphs be taught? Perhaps it is best to use them only to illustrate the solutions of simultaneous linear and of quadratic equations, and to plot the graphs of statistics or of such a series of readings as are likely to occur in practical science.

The most important types of factors are $x^2 + px + q$ (with its particular case $x^2 \pm 2ax + a^2$), $x^2 - y^2$, and $ax^2 + bx + c$, the last type being easily converted into the first, as may be seen from the following example:

$$6x^2 + 7x - 20 = \frac{1}{6}\left\{(6x)^2 + 7(6x) - 120\right\}$$

$$= \frac{1}{6}(6x + 15)(6x - 8)$$

$$= (2x + 5)(3x - 4).$$

The artifice adopted in the first step makes the factorisation depend upon the type $y^2 + 7y - 120$. Other kinds of factors are less important, but there is no need to omit them on that account, as they are excellent by way of discipline.

Quadratic equations may be solved either by factorisation, where possible, or by completing the square. Where the roots are irrational they should be evaluated as a rule to two places of decimals. The solution may be illustrated by graphical methods. It is interesting to note that the standard quadratic equation $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$ can be solved graphically by finding the points of intersection of the curve $y = x^2$ and the straight line $y = -\frac{b}{a}x - \frac{c}{a}$. Notice that the same curve, once drawn, can be used to solve any number of quadratic equations by drawing different straight lines to intersect it.

In dealing with surds and indices all artificiality should be avoided. Surds should be treated practically, and evaluated, special notice being taken of the labour saved by the process of rationalising the denominator. A knowledge of fractional and negative indices is required as an introduction to common logarithms, which are best approached through the medium of the graph $y = 10^x$, as is suggested in several excellent modern text-books. A large amount of practice is needed before boys can be trusted to use tables with accuracy.

The extension of this course will depend upon the individual. The future mathematical specialist will devote due attention to pure algebra, while the budding engineer will certainly avoid a large portion of it. All will already know something of ratio and proportion through arithmetic and geometry, and can strengthen that knowledge. And why should not every one learn some of the uses of the Binomial Theorem? A clever teacher could make such a lesson exceptionally stimulating without touching the strict mathematical proof. For, truth to tell, it is as unreasonable to compel the average boy to know the formal proof of the Binomial Theorem before he uses its result, as it is to insist on his attaining to full knowledge of the laws of motion before he learns to ride a bicycle.

To discuss completely the reforms in the teaching of the higher branches of mathematics would require a chapter in itself. Let it suffice to say that they partake of the same nature as those already indicated in the elementary portions. The modern student of trigonometry applies his theoretical knowledge rather to the solution of problems in heights and distances, with the assistance of four-figure tables, than to

unravelling the mysteries of identities. The first stage in a course of elementary mechanics consists of a series of quantitative experiments designed to illustrate the composition and resolution of forces, the principle of the lever, and friction. The examples, too, are of a practical nature, and usually numerical, graphical methods being freely used to check the calculated results. In the study of the sections of the cone, freedom is allowed to choose the analytical method of attack, or the geometrical, whichever is most suitable. And, finally, the methods of the calculus are introduced at a much earlier stage than formerly, and used wherever they add to the simplicity of the work. All this is an incalculable boon to those engaged in the study of mathematics.

In conclusion, a word of advice is offered to the teacher who is unaccustomed to modern methods. A number of educational bodies have issued special reports on the teaching of mathematics. Let him collect every one of these, and study their recommendations. Let him read every article dealing with this subject which has appeared in the educational monthlies of recent years. Let him read them not once, nor twice, but many times, until he is saturated with the spirit that permeates them. Then, and then only, will he be fit to commence his duties as a teacher of mathematics. His task will be no light one, for he will have much yet to learn, and his responsibility will be great. Finally, there is one thing to be remembered above all others. There comes in the life of every teacher a time when he thinks he has nothing more to learn. Ten years later he knows that, at that previous time, far from having been omniscient, he was but a mere tyro in the art of teaching.

W. LATTIMER.

CHAPTER II

TEACHING METHODS (*continued*)

PHYSICAL SCIENCE

THE two great aims of the Science master are: on the one hand, to train his boys in the habit of seeking for, and acquiring, scientific knowledge; and, on the other, to train them in the habit of using this knowledge when acquired. By scientific knowledge is usually meant an acquaintance with the phenomena of the material world and their sequences. This knowledge may be used either in extending its own bounds, or in the applied arts, or in dealing with the circumstances of daily life.

The first question that arises is, what branch of science shall be the subject-matter of the lessons? And at once there rushes forward a host of applicants, each claiming that his favourite group of phenomena is the most worthy of consideration. The master, however, bearing in mind his second aim and the material at his disposal, will choose those physical and chemical sequences which figure more or less in all the sciences.

The boy who enters the Secondary School has already undergone a certain amount of training, either deliberately or subconsciously scientific. He has been for some time in the habit of using his hand, eye, ear, and other sense-organs, and his brain is more or less capable of directing his movements. Besides this, he has had some experience of cause and effect, and has learnt in some measure to link together the results of his observations, and to predetermine his actions in accordance therewith.

The next question is, in what order the phenomena shall be studied. To simplify this problem, the pupils may be roughly graded into four groups, whose ages are ten to twelve, twelve to fourteen, fourteen to sixteen, and over sixteen. The first group, being the least trained, begins with instruments for measuring length, area, volume, and mass. Much of this work may well be done in the manual-training classes, if there are any—that is to say, the boy may learn to measure lengths and areas in this way, and also to acquire a

correct notion of decimals. In the science classes he learns the use of the balance, measuring flasks, jars, and burettes. He may also acquire some knowledge of solutions, filtering, and simple chemical manipulations. The second group may learn the simpler phenomena of heat, light, and electricity, combustion, chemical change, and the properties of air and water. The third group will deal with more difficult physical phenomena, statics and dynamics, and the chemical properties of some common substances, such as acids, bases, chalk, and salt. The last group in all Secondary Schools either abandons scientific studies altogether, or specialises with a view to gaining a more intimate knowledge of physics and chemistry, and sometimes of physiology. The exact amount studied by each group depends on local considerations, such as equipment, time allotted to the subject, the size of the classes and their composition.

One point should be carefully borne in mind. In acquiring scientific knowledge all the senses must be used. A boy learns as much from his fingers as from his eyes. It is essential, therefore, that the work should be varied so as to bring all the senses into play. For this reason, experiments may be done, and sequences studied, at an earlier stage than may appear strictly logical. For example, pendulum experiments afford valuable training for the eye and ear, and may be introduced at a comparatively early stage, as I shall indicate below. Generally we may say that it is expedient to give some experience of all the different branches of physics, together with some knowledge of chemistry, before any one branch is studied at all deeply. The value of the varied training of the senses will be seen later, as the work becomes more advanced. If the master thinks fit to perform some experiment before the boys, instead of allowing them to perform it themselves, he will find it advisable to pass the apparatus round, so that they can all handle and examine it closely. I now propose chiefly to speak of the method pursued by the master in dealing with his class.

Every boy should be provided with a note-book or paper which he can file for reference, and should be placed so that all he does can be readily seen by his master. The latter begins by stating some problem and asking for a solution arising from past experience. For example, let us suppose that the boys are being introduced to the balance. He asks them what they know about scales, how they are used, and what they are used for. This leads to questions about the construction of the balance put before the pupils, and the most convenient way to use it. Finally an object is weighed

and the result noted. Various methods may be used to stimulate the attention of the boys. If the class is of a reasonable size, each boy may be told to write any answer he can give. Then one boy is called on to read what he has written. When he has finished, the master asks how many agree with him. A fresh answer is now called for from one of those who do not agree, and so on. The boys are then asked to criticise the different suggestions, until at last a general agreement is reached. By judicious marking for the answers much useful incentive may be given. The master must carefully avoid telling the class which he prefers, for if he does so the boys will never lose their natural propensity to consider that the results of their work are right or wrong according to the will of the master, and will therefore fail to acquire by experience the all-important truth that the sequences they observe are governed by immutable laws, which are not of the same order as the conventional rules of grammar, or the rules of the school. To take an example, the boys, having observed that solids expand when heated, are led to inquire whether liquids act in the same way. They are led on to suggest heating water in a flask with a long narrow neck, or in a flask closed with a perforated cork carrying a narrow glass tube. They place the flask of water on a stand over a burner and observe what happens. They write down the results of their observations and read them out. Some of the results do not agree, because here and there a careful boy has noticed that at first the water appears to shrink. The master, if wise, will refrain from praising such observation, and merely write on the board the number of those who have noticed this, and the number of those who have not. Which is right? The class is told to repeat the experiment, looking out carefully for this phenomenon. In this way the boys gain a valuable lesson in the importance of accurate observation as well as in the immutability of natural laws. Again, let us suppose a class has been measuring the solubility of salt in water. The results are written up on the blackboard, the variations noticed, and a discussion follows as to the causes of these variations. From this discussion arise suggestions for rendering the work more accurate. The experiment is repeated with the suggested precautions, and the results are again written up and compared. It is now seen that they agree more closely, and the inference is drawn that the average of the results is probably the most accurate result obtainable.

If the class is large, the answers may be taken orally. The master, after inviting criticisms and amendments, may

take a show of hands for or against any suggestion. Some masters prefer a combination of both written and oral answers. Perhaps the better way is to introduce variety, by using sometimes one method and sometimes another. In all cases a little judicious marking will prove helpful.

When a result has been obtained by a class, the master may occasionally tell the boys that the same question has been studied by others, and how these others have worked at it, and with what results. This information may be entered in the notes, along with the boys' own result, for purposes of comparison. The object of this is to get them to regard their own work as valuable, and also to accustom them to use the results obtained by others with care and circumspection. This should not be done often, and great care should be taken to do it in such a way that the boys do not regard the results they hear of as the "right answer" they "ought" to have got.

From each experiment arise questions which may be utilised for fresh inquiries, and thus the studies of the class are given continuity, while the habit is inculcated of seeking for more knowledge as well as of using it. At the conclusion of a piece of work applications to every-day life may be suggested, and the boys thus led to make observations on their own account out of school. For example, after having seen that the mercury in a thermometer expands when heated, the boys may be induced to make a daily temperature chart, and thus acquire for themselves some ideas about the weather. They will also take an intelligent interest in a clinical thermometer. Again, the expansion of solids when heated may be used to introduce the subject of the compensated pendulum, and this, in its turn, may lead to the investigation of the laws of the pendulum.

Should a young master feel any difficulty in drawing up a course of work for his class, he will find a large number of text-books to help him. Among the numerous works published every year he can hardly fail to discover one to suit his particular needs.

Having decided on the course and the lessons he intends to give, the master may choose between two methods. He may make his boys work either in pairs or separately. There are good reasons for adopting either system, but the master will probably find that boys work better in pairs. This method is the one usually chosen at the present day, even by those who began with the other. Some trouble should be taken in selecting the pairs. On taking a class for the first time it may be necessary to trust to chance; but, as

the term goes on, the class can be rearranged. Useful combinations are: a boy to whom the work is not quite new with one who is quite fresh; an idle clever boy with an idle stupid boy; a clever boy who prefers to use his head to his hands, with a stupid boy who prefers the reverse; and a slow, plodding, accurate worker with one who is inclined to be slapdash. The wisdom of each of these combinations will become clear on trial, if it is not already obvious. If care is taken in the grouping of the boys into pairs, the difficulties arising from the different rates at which boys work will be overcome. In fact, herein lies one of the great advantages of this method of arranging the boys. It also, to a large extent, gets over the difficulty introduced by forming a class out of boys who have been gathered together because they excel in some other study, as not infrequently happens where there is a Classical Side, or where the forms are the same for all subjects.

Working in pairs involves talking. This talking, which is such a crime in other classes, is a real assistance in Science work. It has its obvious dangers, however, and a master will be wise if he at first forbids a boy talking to any but his fellow, or leaving his place for any reason whatever. Many Inspectors, and some Headmasters, estimate a young master's capacity for teaching by the degree of quiet in his class. They cannot understand a boy talking about his work for any but dishonest purposes. They may grudgingly tolerate it with a master of age and experience, but they are apt to be hard on a younger man. This attitude of mind has arisen from the custom of having absurdly large classes, and of being satisfied if a small percentage attains any success. The young master will be wise, therefore, if, from the beginning, he insists on talking being carried on in a low voice, on its being confined to the pairs, and on no walking about. The walking to and from the balances may be got over by using balances with a support for the beam, so that they can be carried about. These can be obtained now at comparatively little extra cost, together with exchangeable agates. Of course, all this "discipline" tends to waste time, and is part of the penalty paid for crowding boys together in large classes of twenty and upwards. It is an excellent plan to appoint one pair of boys as monitors, and allow them, as a privilege, to give out apparatus and chemicals, and, at the end of the lesson, to collect and put them away. Such a practice trains the boys in methodical and cleanly habits on the one hand, and, on the other, prevents the vice of supercilious slovenliness, which comes of being waited on and cleaned up after by laboratory

attendants. It leaves the attendant free to keep the apparatus in proper order and check breakages, while the master can devote his whole time to watching the boys at work, and preventing idleness, or accidents arising from clumsiness, stupidity, or visual and other bodily defects.

Having discussed with the class what they are going to do, the master orders each boy to write down what he intends to try to find out, how he intends to try, and why he expects to find an answer. The apparatus is next distributed, and the experiment done. An account of it is then written out, with a drawing of the apparatus used. With the lower classes, the master may with advantage, at this stage, show on the blackboard how apparatus can be indicated by a diagram. Great stress should be laid on neat writing, clear expression, and the proper use of stops. If boys are allowed to scribble in rough note-books and copy these jottings out neatly for home-work, they will be certain to reproduce the note-book style in examinations, because it saves time and trouble; whereas, if they are compelled to be neat from the very first, neatness becomes a habit which later on will yield valuable results. Although examinations are usually more injurious than useful, they exist, and by taking this precaution the master may avoid adverse criticism. The habit, too, of keeping a neat note-book is invaluable. It reacts on the character, helping to form the habit of neat work. Another useful precaution tending in the same direction, is to forbid the splashing of water on the desk or dropping liquids and solids about. Small boys show a remarkable aptitude for making a mess, and benefit greatly by being compelled to be clean. Such compulsion has the further advantage of developing the habit of self-restraint and prudent forethought, which brings as its reward a diminished bill for breakages.

While the notes are being written, the master should go round the class, and rapidly inspect the writing, to see that it is being properly done. When the notes are finished, he can demand the results in one or other of the ways suggested above. If the result is one which can be expressed in numbers, the different figures obtained are written up and compared, and, if they agree sufficiently, the average is taken. Now follows a discussion as to the meaning of the result and its practical applications. The tabulated figures of the class, together with the average, are entered up, and any conclusions drawn therefrom are added by the boys. The ground is now clear for the questions and discussions that lead on to the next experiment.

If the result is not expressed numerically, a boy may be

called on to read out the result of his experiment. The rest of the class may then be asked if their results agree with his, and the number of those that agree written on the board. The remaining boys are then treated in the same way. If only one or two disagree, they may be called on to give a reason for their difference of opinion, and, if they can give none, the rest of the form can be invited to suggest reasons. If there is much divergence in the results, a useful discussion may follow as to the causes of the want of agreement, and suggestions elicited for avoiding possible errors, after which the experiment is repeated. When a satisfactory agreement is arrived at, it is duly entered in the note-book, together with the conclusions drawn from it.

Among the methods adopted for arriving at the numerical laws which govern natural phenomena, squared paper deserves separate mention. It can be used for comparing similar phenomena, such as densities, boiling points, and the like. Lines may be drawn whose lengths are proportional to the numbers obtained, and thus a useful graphical method of comparing the results may be arrived at. Young boys have much difficulty in grasping the idea of a ratio, while they take quite kindly to a definite unit. It is advisable as a rule to take density as the mass in grammes of one cubic centimetre, rather than to take specific gravity. Similarly, it is as well to get a clear idea of a calorie before going on to specific heat, which may be taken as the number of calories used. By using squared paper for entering the results it is easy to develop the notion of comparison, and so pave the way for using ratios at a later stage, when the brain is sufficiently developed to grasp the idea.

To arrive at the laws which are capable of mathematical expression a different method must be adopted. The class is given squared paper and taught the form of the curves which represent the simple cases it is likely to meet with. If the boys have not learnt already, in their mathematical lessons, how to use squared paper, they must now be taught its use, plotting the curves $\frac{x}{y} = a$, $x + y = a$, $\frac{x^2}{y} = a$, $xy = a$, where a is constant, until they have grasped their shapes, and can state the equation when they see the curve. The letters x and y should be varied, in fact the same letters should never be used twice, and the values $x = 0$, $y = 0$ should never be given, as they rarely occur in practice. Boys soon grasp the above four curves, and enjoy using this method. To give the results a meaning, it is advisable, after the law has been arrived at, to set a result to be calculated out and then

checked by experiment. For example, when it has been found that with the pendulum the length varies as the square of the time, the length of a seconds pendulum may be calculated, and then the pendulum adjusted to that length, and its time of swing measured.

By the age of sixteen the brain has control enough over the organs of sense to justify a formal presentation of the subject, and the boy who has been well trained makes rapid and intelligent progress. He is in a position to appreciate the value of results attained by others, and can, if necessary, work by himself from a book. In schools where many boys leave at sixteen it may be needful to begin this formal teaching a year earlier, either with a view to some examination, or in order to accustom the boy, who is probably going to work under orders, to obey intelligently new and unexplained directions. The methods employed at this stage are not of the same importance. If the pupil has been well trained up to this point, he will make good progress even under an indifferent teacher. It is impossible to indicate a course, as so much depends on the future destination of the boy.

Finally, there remains for mention the most important aspect of the whole matter. Inquiry into natural law is the best of all studies for forming character. As the intellectual faculties of the brain develop, the significance of natural law must profoundly affect the thinking mind. The boy will acquire the habit of regarding natural laws as inevitable, constant, and unaffected by human caprice, since a human law may be broken with impunity if circumstances favour the delinquent, whereas no possible circumstances can alter the sequences of nature. Even if his school experience is confined to inorganic laws, he will nevertheless adopt this mental attitude in his contemplation of the organic world, for there is no real boundary between the two. It is but one step more to morality. Moral and spiritual ideas are exhibited in conduct, and it is conduct which determines our relations with the world around us. The boy will come to regard moral and spiritual laws as he regards laws that are called natural. The effect of this on his character can only be to raise it. His principles will stand on the solid foundation of experience, and from continuous practice his conduct will become the spontaneous realisation of those principles in action.

F. BEAMES.

CHAPTER II

TEACHING METHODS (*continued*)

NATURE STUDY

WHATEVER share our countrymen may have had in the advancement of biological science, it is generally admitted that England is, *par excellence*, the home of the field-naturalist. Ever since the days of Gilbert White the study of outdoor natural history has continued to grow in popularity. Local field-clubs and societies have sprung up in all directions; popular lecturers on natural history are constantly in demand; and an ever-increasing number of books and periodicals shows that even town dwellers, with little or no experience of the country, are eager to acquire second-hand knowledge of animal and plant life, if it be provided for them in an attractive form. It is not surprising therefore that this national bent has at last found expression in our educational system. Few people nowadays would deny that some knowledge of the world around us, gained by actual observation, is, if not a necessity, at least a *desideratum* in any scheme of liberal education. Consequently Nature Study has found its way into many of our primary schools, and the recent report of the Sub-Committee appointed by Section L of the British Association to inquire into the sequence of studies in Secondary Schools, shows that this subject finds a place in many of our larger "grammar" and "public" schools, especially in those where the leaving age is eighteen. Being chiefly responsible for the Nature Study teaching in a large public school, I shall try, at the request of the editors of this volume, to point out the lines which, as most teachers agree, have been found to prove useful, and at the same time to draw attention to the difficulties to be met with in dealing adequately with the subject to large classes. Furthermore, it may not be out of place to indicate the dangers to effective teaching that may arise if certain principles are ignored.

To cultivate the power of observation, to awaken enthusiasm for natural history in its widest sense, and to practise the pupil in drawing and in describing, clearly and in good English, something definite and tangible, are the chief aims of

Nature Study. It stands to reason, therefore, that work in the class-room must be essentially practical. The master tells his class no more than what is necessary to lead them to learn for themselves. The common experiences of the seasons will at once suggest suitable subjects. In autumn the dispersal of seeds, the fall of the leaves and their ultimate fate; the forms of winter buds; plant store-houses; and hibernating animals, are some of the more obvious. Such a course necessitates providing the class with various kinds of fruits, the twigs of deciduous trees, bulbs, corms, roots, etc. The boys can often be got to collect them for themselves, and it is important that some kind of outdoor search connected with the lessons should be given them as often as possible. The work in school consists chiefly in drawing and describing and comparing definite objects. Suitable questions, written or oral, on the part of the master will lead the boy to think of the why and wherefore of the structure he is studying, and he may be led on to make a few simple generalisations of his own. By the next lesson the master will have "looked-over" the boys' note-books, and he can point out the principal mistakes and oversights of the last time. Such a course as I have roughly indicated can easily be made to extend over a term of thirteen weeks, in which three hours a week are devoted to Nature Study.

So with spring and summer. The growth of seeds, simple plant morphology and physiology, such as the form and functions of leaves, plant defences, and methods of healing wounds; the fertilisation of flowers by insects, and the development and metamorphosis of the frog and silkworm, are useful objects of study. But it is always desirable to adapt the course to any special feature of the locality. Where outdoor work is possible, and the local geology is suitable, such matters as the surface-formation, the nature of the soil, the action of streams and rivers, may be taught in a non-didactic way; while in every place the effects of frost, the nature of clouds and rain, the apparent movements of the sun, etc., may be worked in. Nearly everything depends on the personal taste of the master. Unless the world of nature appeals to him otherwise than in a vague general way he had better not try to teach Nature Study. Subject-matter is of small importance; method everything. To get the boys to think for themselves and to look upon the master as a learner like themselves, though further on the road than they, rather than as an omniscient oracle, is the aim of every teacher worthy of the name. At the same time, it is unwise to forget, and not to use to the best advantage, the innate love of the marvellous in all boys.

It may therefore be found advisable to substitute occasionally for the ordinary work lectures, illustrated by specimens and lantern-slides, dealing with such topics as extinct animals, tropical bird-life, the fauna of the deep sea, etc., when suitable opportunities occur in connection with some subject in the ordinary course. Such lectures as these, though perhaps of less general educational value, do more to bring out latent enthusiasm for biological study in particular boys than the ordinary school work.

Experience has shown me that, out of a class of, say, thirty-five boys, about five will take little or no interest in the work. With them the educational value of Nature Study is therefore practically *nil*. Of course a minimum must be insisted upon, and especial stress can in their case be laid on neatness, writing, and spelling. Such boys will generally prove to be mentally behind the others in every way, and the ordinary tests for quickness of apprehension will show this. Of the rest, about twenty will work willingly and take trouble in school, but, unless some definite out-of-school work has been set them, they will dismiss the subject from their minds until the next lesson. The remainder may be calculated upon to add to their note-books drawings and photographs, and to work them up out of school, spending in some cases much time and trouble. Among these the master may hope to find one or two, if biology be taught in the higher forms of the school, returning to him later on; but to me personally, and I find my colleagues in other schools have had the same experience, the results in this respect have been rather disappointing. As to text-books, a certain amount of divergence of opinion exists, but most teachers will agree that a book giving hints for out-of-school and holiday work is never wasted on a keen boy. Their use in school must, however, be strictly limited if they are of the kind that gives the boy the information he might otherwise acquire for himself. I have found, as regards note-books, that those made for me by Messrs. Spottiswoode of Eton best answer the purpose. They consist of sheets of paper, ruled on one side and blank on the other, which by means of two laces can be arranged together between the covers. By this means the book can be enlarged to any extent. The arrangement by which each sheet of paper, really composed of two pieces closely applied together, can be used either for writing on the one side, or for drawing on the other, has proved very satisfactory.

I need not enumerate any "tricks" for getting the whole class to do its utmost. All teachers have their own methods. But I may mention that I have always found that a com-

parison between two more or less similar objects, such as a hyacinth bulb and a crocus corm, with a view to finding out as many points of difference as possible, is an exercise that all boys like, whether or not they have any taste for natural history. Most of the class, if not all, will take a delight in growing such a seed as a broad bean, in such a manner that they can note the various phenomena day by day; and occasionally I have had excellent accounts shown up at the end of the term. The differences to be observed in the behaviour of a sprouting runner bean, or a pumpkin seed, offer valuable opportunities for comparison. Not long ago the letters of an Eton boy were published in one of the monthly magazines, and it was clear that this particular exercise had appealed to his sense of novelty and had aroused an interest that was not forthcoming in the rest of his school work.

It is to my mind an incontrovertible fact, however much those who are bound by classical traditions may scoff at Nature Study as a Public School subject, that for the lower forms it offers a training of great value. The boys like it, and will work at it without any driving on the part of the teacher. This at least cannot be said of all the subjects in their curriculum. If the complaint is raised that boys are now being taught too many things, it must not be forgotten that many schoolmasters are beginning to think that the burden imposed on boys by being taught Latin, Greek, English, and French at the same time is out of all proportion to their gain. Linguistic training for many boys is only of secondary value, and even for those who have naturally a taste for languages it has been found by experiment that Greek can be advantageously begun at a much later date than is usual. Young boys understand and appreciate concrete things rather than abstract ideas; this the teacher of Nature Study has to bear continually in mind; and I am convinced that this axiom is better understood in England than in some Continental countries to which we are accustomed to look for instruction in educational methods. I have some experience of the teaching of natural history in German schools, and I firmly believe that in this branch of school work our English methods are the best. Nevertheless, although it is easy enough to suggest courses of Nature Study, practical experience proves that this kind of work is attended by difficulties peculiarly its own. In the first place, especially at Public Schools, where nowadays the claims on a boy's time are exacting, it is hard to ensure that the work in school is amplified by any out-of-door observation on the part of the boys away from the master's eye. (Personally

conducted rambles with forty boys from thirteen to fifteen years old are plainly impossible, except very rarely and under exceptional circumstances.) But prizes for notes or collections made from some special point of view will help partly to mitigate this drawback. Again, the study of living animals in a schoolroom is not easy, and, unless the discipline is strict, is likely to produce disaster. For this reason botany lends itself far more readily than zoology as a class subject. Then the labour involved to the master is considerable. Planning out a course in which it is necessary to look for weeks ahead, unless the teacher is content to follow the same routine year after year, needs careful forethought. The collecting of material also takes up much of his spare time, and, unless it be a labour of love, becomes an almost intolerable burden. If the school is in a town the work is of course proportionately greater. The subject, moreover, is a "new" one, unbacked by centuries of tradition. It has taken many years for Public Schoolmasters to learn to tolerate Science teaching, and even now it is viewed with dislike and suspicion in many quarters. But "nature study" is not "science," and therefore fresh prejudices have to be overcome. "What is the use of your work with the Fourth Form boys?" I am often asked; and "I am sure observation can be better taught by Latin grammar," said a classical colleague to me the other day. He fully believed what he said, but I forbore to argue the point!

Lastly, as to the danger of Nature Study proving ineffective. From one cause or another the work often tends to become scrappy and disconnected. This is not a serious drawback in the case of young children, but the age of the boys in a Public School, even in the lowest forms, demands that the greatest care should be taken to make the lessons as connected as possible. If boys are to be taught scientific method it is impossible to overestimate the importance of a connected series. Furthermore, it is necessary to explain to them the use of what they are doing; otherwise the elder ones are inclined to look upon the subject as childish and "a waste of time." Again, there is a danger of a scientific teacher for ever trying to enforce a relentless accuracy as to detail. He may be fairly successful, he cannot be wholly, but he runs the risk of failing to inspire delight in the whole, by insisting on a too exacting survey of a part. Or he may be tempted by the painful slowness and lack of descriptive power in young boys to tell them more and more what they have to see, rather than lead them on to find out for themselves. With this the class will readily acquiesce, and things will be easier for everybody; but the work ceases to be

Nature Study. Finally, unless great care be taken, the work will remain for the majority of boys an indoor school-hour task. This I hold to be the greatest of all dangers, even with the most successful teacher. In these days of crowded curricula and organised games, it is hard to fight against it. School natural-history societies, museum demonstrations, lectures, occasional expeditions, and prizes for holiday notes will help to keep it in check, but they cannot wholly abolish it.

I have confined myself solely to the question of Nature Study in Public Schools; but, in order to avoid giving a wrong impression, I wish to state most emphatically that it is in the Private Schools that Nature Study can best be taught. The younger the boys are, the better. Of this there cannot be the slightest doubt, and already the subject has found its way into some Preparatory Schools. The signs are hopeful; and, if I may be allowed the prophecy, in a few years all boys will, when they come to Public Schools, have been taught, as a matter of course, to observe and appreciate the world around them, and to have some knowledge of the wonders of animal and plant life.

M. D. HILL.

CHAPTER II

TEACHING METHODS (*continued*)

HYGIENE

"HYGIENE is the practical conduct of life, based upon knowledge of all that renders growth more perfect, life more vigorous, and death more remote."

In 1853, the following recommendation of sixty-five eminent medical men was brought under the notice of Government and earnestly urged upon the public: "We are of the opinion that it would greatly tend to prevent sickness and to promote soundness of body and mind, were the elements of Physiology, in its application to the preservation of Health, made a part of general education; and we are convinced that such instruction may be rendered most interesting to the young, and may be communicated to them with the utmost facility and propriety in the ordinary schools by properly instructed schoolmasters." This recommendation, after half a century's neglect, is to-day being repeated with even greater insistence and with practical unanimity by physicians and educationists alike. Both recognise that no training of the young is complete which leaves them ignorant of the elementary rules that must be observed, if health is to be maintained and an adequate physical basis secured for all the activities of life. Yet in 1903 the Education Section of the British Association reported that no systematic instruction was being given in our Public Schools, and a more recent inquiry, which embraced fifty-five Secondary Schools for boys, showed that in one alone was Hygiene a definite subject in the school-course.

That the results of ignorance in respect to matters of health are grave can be easily demonstrated. The amount of preventible physical unfitness in every class of the community is enormous, and a menace to the very existence of the State. There is no physician who will not testify that a large proportion of his patients owe their infirmities to neglect of the simple rules of health, or have by such neglect rendered serious otherwise trifling ailments. A single in-

discretion, which a clear knowledge of the possible consequences would have certainly prevented, often results in a lifelong weakness of the constitution and thereby affects the happiness and utility, not only of the individual, but of his offspring. The development of the intelligence of man, as a causative agent which shapes his environment, has produced an existence far removed from the simple conditions that surrounded him in a primitive state. The keenness of sense perception and intuitional reaction to well-defined signals of danger which served primitive man are, to his modern descendant, no longer a sufficient shield. Natural selection has been greatly modified under religious and social influences, and tendencies to weakness and physical unfitness are no longer rigorously eliminated. The influences of civilised life which interfere with perfect growth and lead to physical deterioration are often so subtle in their nature and so slow and accumulative in their action, that greater knowledge and vigilance are imperative if we would counteract their effects. Moreover, the relations of cause and effect are not realised unless brought before the mind by scientific observation. To this end definite instruction is necessary during school-life. At this period also must be laid the foundations of those habits upon which the continuance of good health depends, and of that mental attitude aptly termed "the hygienic conscience."

Dr. Clement Dukes published, in 1907, the results of the examination of 1,000 boys at entrance to a great Public School. His own words are: "It is depressing to register in the twentieth century the large number of acquired preventible deformities which are presented by the most favoured class of boys in Great Britain." Such a statement both shows how little help is to be gained as yet from parental co-operation, and completely demonstrates the community's need of a knowledge of the Laws of Health. A manifest change, however, has of late come over the attitude of the public, and perhaps the most remarkable movement of the early years of the twentieth century has been the awakening of the public conscience with regard to national health and physique. This is an unlooked-for and beneficent result of our struggle with the Boer Republics. Already we have seen statutes enacted of far-reaching importance. Care for the bodily growth of children, in respect of feeding and physical exercises, has become an integral part of the Primary Education system, as has also the medical inspection of school-children; and this year we at last see Hygiene made a compulsory subject for all teachers in training colleges. The movement is extending

in scope and increasing in volume, and there will undoubtedly arise an irresistible demand for instruction and training in the laws of health in Secondary as much as in Elementary Schools. Six years ago, under the heading "Higher Class Schools," the Royal Commission on Physical Training (Scotland) reported: "We believe that, if instruction in the Laws of Health became a necessary and prominent feature in all schools, the general diffusion of such knowledge would gradually effect far-reaching improvements in the social, physical, and moral conditions of the population."

We must pass over, as the offspring of ignorance and prejudice, the objections still urged in some quarters that Physiology and Hygiene are improper subjects for teaching to boys. More serious is the dismal plaint of want of time. Until Hygiene takes the place its importance warrants, as a mark-earning or compulsory subject in all qualifying and Matriculation examinations, I freely admit that it will not, in many schools, be practicable to carry out an extended syllabus on the lines of that indicated at the end of the present chapter. Short of this, however, recognition of its necessity should result in the irreducible minimum of Hygiene instruction being given everywhere.

Half the battle in the saving of time in the curriculum is the correlation of subjects. Hygiene deals directly with the relations of man to his environment, and it is therefore not surprising that its correlations are numerous. At the outset it grows out of, and is part of, *Nature Study*, since the observation of plants and animals prepares the way for dealing in a natural manner with the life-processes of man. Advancing from the relations between man and his natural environment to the relations of mankind in communities, the boy learns what acts are harmful, not to himself alone, but to his neighbours. He is shown how by common action men have attempted to produce healthy conditions, and thus Hygiene is closely connected up with *Civics*. Since, moreover, on its theoretical side, Hygiene derives many of its applications from the study of *Chemistry* and *Physics*, where these subjects are not taught separately a certain amount of instruction in both must be incorporated in the Hygiene course. Where there is a graded course in Elementary Science the Hygiene syllabus must be so arranged that the portions more nearly connected with the particular science taken up are dealt with at the same period.

Many other subjects provide excellent material for making reference to Hygiene. The habits of various nations in respect to food, clothing, exercise, and to those pursuits

which depend upon physical conditions; their influence upon national character and the consequent shaping of *History*; the changes in the progress of national evolution produced by pestilences, overcrowding, or failure of natural supplies; the attitude of Athenian, Spartan, Mediæval, and other civilisations towards youth and physical efficiency, may all teach their hygienic lesson and give rise to comparisons with our own conditions and customs. With *Moral Instruction* are closely linked such topics as the need of respect for the temple of the body, the duty of efficiency, and regard for the welfare of the community. But it is in relation to *Physical Exercises* and *Games* that the appeal of Hygiene to the imagination and interest of boyhood is the strongest, and its influence upon practical conduct the most pronounced. Boys are keen to learn every means by which physical efficiency and athletic prowess can be furthered, and knowledge of their effects, in producing unsteadiness of hand and eye and preventing physical development, forms the best deterrent from vicious habits. The Physical Instructor thus has exceptional opportunities for impressing upon his pupils many of the rules of Health.

Obviously, then, much instruction in Hygiene can be given indirectly in the course of other subjects, with advantage to the subjects themselves, thus economising the time necessary for definite teaching by means of formal lessons. The hard-pressed schoolmaster will here inquire if this be not enough. Cannot, he asks, the necessities of the case be met by indirect teaching alone? Our answer must be "No." However great the teacher's enthusiasm, and earnest his intentions, the instruction must tend to become perfunctory, and, unless a definite place in the curriculum be assigned to the subject, the knowledge of it acquired indirectly will remain incoherent and unorganised. At the same time, it is possible, by the aid of indirect teaching, to reduce the number of hours needed in each grade to, say, ten or twelve, in place of the twenty to twenty-four contemplated in the syllabus I give below.

As Hygiene should take its place among the courses in Science, and should be intimately correlated with them, it follows that one of the Science masters should be directly responsible for its teaching. It is probable that the School Doctor would be unwilling to take so large a share in regular class-room work as a full course in the subject would involve, but, if instruction in First Aid to the Injured formed part of the Hygiene programme, it is very likely that he would be prepared to undertake this section. Many of the more

technical points in Physiology and Anatomy would thus be given to the boys at first hand.

In some countries there is found a class of trained observers, with both medical and pedagogical qualifications, whose work has been of inestimable value in shaping the new ideals of training which rest upon a physiological and psychological study of the child. In future, Great Britain will be provided with a similar body of men, through the recent institution of School Medical Officers in the service of Education Authorities. In case of need it should be possible to engage one of these officers at quite a nominal cost to take over some part at any rate of the graded course. The good offices of the Local Medical Officer of Health, too, must be enlisted in connection with those grades in which visits are necessary to houses and buildings in course of erection, and to various public institutions such as abattoirs, sewage-farms, waterworks, etc. This help will generally be gladly and freely given. At the present time it is certain that the best results will be obtained by handing over the regular teaching to one of the Science masters on the staff, and by arranging for such expert collaboration from outside as circumstances permit.

At first Hygiene should follow the heuristic and observational methods of Nature Study. In the first grade each topic should be taken up as an object-lesson and treated in a conversational manner, care being always taken to elicit the ideas, if any, which the boys already possess. In no other subject will so many superstitious notions be found, as in regard to questions of health, and the boys should be encouraged to prove how false these notions are by personal observation and experiment. In the succeeding grades the instruction will be given through a scientific and consecutive course of practical work, the boys making experiments for themselves and recording in a note-book the results, together with the deductions which they draw. Diagrams, models, and demonstrations should be freely used, but, wherever possible, the actual things under discussion should be inspected and handled. In Grade IV. a text-book should be allowed for the first time, in connection with the general recapitulation of work. Although the microscope may not be necessary in giving the irreducible minimum of Hygiene instruction, yet, if a complete course is aimed at, its use is indispensable. The instrument has an extraordinary attraction for boys; it opens up a world otherwise beyond their sense-experience, and appeals to their love of exploration. Grade VI. in the course below deals almost entirely with the objects discerned by its means.

In the following summary of a course in eight grades a complete scheme of training in Hygiene is outlined. Starting from the central idea of the relations of man to his surroundings, attention is fixed in the earlier part upon the ideal of a healthy and active physical life as a basis for efficiency and happiness. The description of disagreeable and morbid conditions is avoided, together with all that may tend to introspection. The appeals to practical conduct should be to those natural instincts of young boyhood which evoke immediate response. It is only in the final grades, when the more social and altruistic impulses are developing in later adolescence, that the ideals of duty to others in relation to health are introduced, as a branch of Civics. The central topics of the different grades are arranged in this order: (1) The Body and its Environment; (2) The Body as an Energy-producing Machine; (3) The Activities of the Body (physical exercises); (4) The Relations of Bodily and Mental Health (the nervous system); (5) The Habitations of Man; (6) The Microscopic World; (7) The Needs of Communities; (8) The duties of the Individual in regard to the Community. Treated in this way, various topics, viewed from different standpoints, reappear in successive grades, while a boy who follows only a single grade will be given a useful insight into the problems of Hygiene from some definite point of view. The recurrence of topics under these circumstances serves to fix their essential features in the memory, and, moreover, facilitates the deeper appreciation of their importance which goes with maturer knowledge and a broadening outlook on life.

It is undesirable to bring such special subjects as Alcohol and Sex into undue prominence. They should rather be made to fit naturally into their proper places in the course. It may, however, be helpful to say a few words here as to the best means of introducing them.

The need for Sexual Enlightenment is admitted by all wise guardians of youth, but much cowardice is exhibited in imparting it. Chiefly through the survival of the attitude of the Mediæval Church towards physical existence, our ideas about sex and sexual activities have hitherto been shrouded in ignorance and tainted with obscenity. The natural curiosity of the child prompts questions which are looked upon as awkward, and he is answered either with lies or rebuffs. As a result his curiosity is the more excited, but, since he sees that for some hidden reason the subject is considered shameful by his parents, he is driven to pick up information, lewd in suggestion and often conveyed in unspeakable terms, from the street or stable. He guards the

knowledge he thus gains with a certain sense of shame, though not necessarily of depravity. It is therefore small wonder that a function associated with ideas not, as they might be, pure and natural, but vicious and perverted, is held in low esteem, and is easily abused by the very boys who maintain their reverence for what they have been reverently taught.

It is one of the greatest merits of the formal teaching of Hygiene that through its medium the subject of sex can be faced in a normal and satisfactory way; the obscenity surrounding it thus disappears, and the foundation is laid, in a clean and healthy knowledge, for reverence of the sacredness of this in common with other bodily functions. In the course I sketch below, Reproduction is introduced in its natural place, in the Second grade. The way for knowledge upon this point has previously been prepared by the observation of sex and fertilisation in plants. The danger, too, of immature functioning in general has already been touched upon; and the special dangers of tampering with the body can now be indicated. The subject is again presented in the last grade (now to boys of eighteen), when the importance of the birth-rate in the national existence, and the havoc played with the health and fertility of nations by venereal disease are studied. If taught in this way, no boy could go out into the world unwarned, and we should meet with fewer cases of lives and homes ruined as a result, perhaps, of a single act of folly, committed in youth through ignorance of its almost inevitable consequences.

The teaching of Temperance should form part of Moral and Religious instruction, but should be based upon the definite knowledge of the nature and effects of Alcohol already acquired by the boys in the Hygiene course. Met with first amongst food-stuffs in Grade II., where its nature and utility are discussed, Alcohol is again studied in succeeding grades, in relation to its effects upon the tissues, and especially upon the nervous system. It is finally dealt with in Grade VIII. from the standpoint of its intemperate use as a factor in national deterioration. The subject of Tobacco-smoking is introduced in Grade III. with reference to bodily fitness and training and to the peculiar action of nicotine on the heart, and in Grade IV. its effects upon the Nervous System and Vision are indicated. I may add that nothing so effectually keeps boys from contracting the habit of cigarette-smoking as the knowledge that such indulgence, before they are fully grown, will certainly prevent them shooting straight with the rifle or having good wind for games and sports.

SUMMARY OF GRADED COURSE

Grade I. The Body and its Surroundings

(Simple object-lessons, illustrating elementary principles)

Comparison of living and non-living bodies; of crystals, plants, and animals.

The Body. Comparison of man and animals.

The skin, compared with different natural coverings—hide, hair, wool, feathers, scales. *Clothing.* Necessity. Kinds. Nails, hair; their care. Cleanliness.

The skeleton of man and lower animals. Symmetry. Posture.

Growth. Height and weight. Pupils make charts of their own measurements, recorded graphically and kept up throughout the course.

The elementary needs of the body. Waste, repair. Hunger, food.

Water. A reservoir, water-pipes, taps, fountain (illustrated by raised vessel with rubber tube and clip). A well, a pump. Matter in suspension; in solution; filter; simple chemical tests of filtrates. Hard and soft water. Soap. Distillation. Evaporation. Porous bodies. Absorbent power of wool, cotton, etc.

Air. A windmill; toy mill as test for draughts. A fan, bellows, pop-gun. Combustion. A candle burning, compared with living body. Necessity of air. Inactivity of products. Indestructibility of matter.

Temperature. Effects on solids, liquids, gases. Make simple water and air thermometers. Hot-air balloon.

(First Aid. Sketch of parts of body and skeleton. Use of triangular bandage.)

Grade II. The Body as an Energy-transforming Machine

The steam-engine. Compare body. Conservation of energy. Energy of fuel, of food. Work, waste, repair. The body. Growth and immaturity. Dangers of immature functioning.

Elementary chemical reactions. Acids, alkalis, salts. Composition of air, of water.

Digestion. Teeth, use and care of. Saliva. Rules for eating. Meals—how, where, why, and when. Digestive organs, absorption. Blood, lymph. *Metabolism.*

Excretion—regular habits. *Reproduction.*

Foods, soluble and insoluble. Kinds, nature, simple chemistry; alterations during digestion. Habits of different nations, why? Cooking.

Beverages. Water, milk, tea; *alcohol*—nature and effects.

(First Aid. Dislocations, fractures.)

Grade III. The Activities of the Body. Exercise

Actions of Levers. Bones, joints, muscles, tendons. Energy, work, rest, recreation, *fatigue.*

Exercises. Greek, knightly, military, Swedish exercises. Jiu-jitsu. Games. Growth of parts with use. Postures.

Heart and circulation. Lungs and respiration. Need of fresh air.

Body heat. Perspiration. *Baths.*

Clothing. Materials, colour, heat-conduction, moisture absorption. Habits of different nations. Footgear and the hygiene of the feet.

Fitness and training. Temperance. Tobacco. Diet.

(First Aid. Heart and circulation. Arrest of bleeding. Respiration. Suffocation, restoration of apparently drowned.)

Grade IV. The Nervous System. Relations of Bodily and Mental Health

The brain and nervous system. The senses. *The eyes, vision, and lighting. The ears and hearing. Sleep*—rules. Rest and recreation. Work. Fatigue.

Habits. Tobacco. Alcohol.

General recapitulation of physiological hygiene, with text-book.

(First Aid. Unconsciousness and poisoning.)

Grade V. The Weather. The Habitations of Man

The weather. Elementary meteorology. Clouds. Rain-dew. Rain-gauge, thermometers. Humidity. Atmospheric pressure. Barometer.

The habitations of man. Historical. *The house.* The school. *Soils*—character. *Sites*—aspect. Construction of houses; how protected from damp. *Ventilation*—cubic space. Lighting. Cleansing. Heating. *Drainage.* The living-rooms, the sleeping-room. Coal-gas. Water appliances; storage, bursting of pipes.

A farm.

(First Aid. How to act in fires and burning. Foreign bodies in eye, nose, etc. Recapitulation.)

Grade VI. The World of the Microscope

The microscope: its use. Examination of *pond life.* Unicellular organisms.

Cells: their structure and uses. Examination of blood and other cells.

Micro-organisms. Nature and activities. Friends and foes. Yeasts. Fermentations. Souring of milk, putrefaction.

Nature of infection. Channels of access. Disinfection. Sterilisation, antiseptics, isolation, immunity-toxins, antitoxins. Action of sun, light, and air. Ventilation.

Parasites.

Foods. Recapitulation; microscopic characters. Diseases from.

Clothing. Recapitulation; microscopic characters.

(First Aid. Wounds, frost-bite, bites, stings, etc. Simple antiseptic dressings.)

Grade VII. Public Health. The Needs of Communities

Cleanliness. Drainage, sewage, pollution of rivers, nuisances, scavenging.

Water-supplies. Collection, filtering, storing, distribution. Hardness of water. Soap test. Water-borne diseases. Typhoid fever.

Food-supplies. Adulterations; carriage and storage.

Milk. Distribution of, importance, diseases.

Climate. Mosquitoes, etc., and health. Altitude. Towns.

Open spaces. Town planning. *Garden cities. Rural hygiene.*

(First Aid. General recapitulation.)

Grade VIII. Public Health. The Duties of Individuals in regard to the Community

Statutory duties of individual householder.

Vital statistics, birth-rate, death-rate, infantile mortality.

Eugenics. Housing. Occupations and mortality. Recreations. Physical deterioration. Factory legislation. Poor law. Public institutions. Child labour. Female labour. Alcohol.

Infectious diseases. Notification.

Epidemics. History (plague and cholera). Smallpox. Vaccination. Isolation hospitals. *Prevention of consumption. Venereal diseases.*

Diseases of animals of economic importance. Diseases communicated by animals to man.

C. J. THOMAS.

CHAPTER II

TEACHING METHODS (*continued*)

CIVICS

THE plea for the teaching of Civics, that is to-day one of the commonest cries to be heard in the educational world, is suggestive of an attitude of mind, with regard to the school and its functions, which is almost wholly new. For the demand implies at once a political, no less than an educational, philosophy. The demand for Civics, as a subject for school teaching, could hardly have arisen a generation or two back, when the prevalent political opinion was that of the older individualist type, which minimised the functions of government and their importance, and restricted the teaching of Ethics to the more personal relations of daily life. But here, as elsewhere, the change which has taken place in our habits of thought has served to emphasise the organic nature of our common life, to bring home the sense of social responsibility. At the same time, the functions of government are steadily becoming more important, and the duties fulfilled by the citizen to the State, whether by way of control through the casting of a vote, or by way of service as an official, becoming more responsible. The welfare of the community depends more and more upon the degree in which these duties are performed efficiently and justly. For, with the growth of wealth and the severance of the personal ties which gave a human touch to the affairs of life in earlier days, the opportunities for tyranny are multiplied. But, if the demand for social control is reasonable, it at once imposes upon the people a far more difficult task than any large political group has yet been able to undertake with success. And the realisation of this truth is reacting upon modern views of education.

It has been said of the Elementary Schools of France that "c'est aux parents de faire les enfants; c'est à l'instituteur de faire le reste." Largely as the result of the growth of free education, the schools are coming to be viewed as the most hopeful instrument for raising the standard of civilisation among the masses of the people. Thus it happens that, while Moral Teaching has become less and less associated with the

interpretation of Theology, it has developed into many forms of instruction in the more practical duties of economic and political life. The State, seeking its own preservation, is anxious to inculcate in its children their duty towards it. The two questions, therefore, of capital importance that are suggested in a consideration of Civics as a school subject are, first, "Is it the duty of the school to undertake the teaching of Social Ethics?" second, "Is it advisable to have a specialised study added to the school curriculum, which may be regarded as the special vehicle for this instruction; and if so, what should be the subject-matter of this study?"

It should be pointed out that, even if the first question be answered in the negative, it may still be desirable that the school should use its opportunity to give to all pupils instruction in the elements of Social Science. The difference would be, however, that in this event the standpoint of the teacher would be that customarily taken by the English professor of Economics; it would be that of Science, not of Ethics.

It may at once be granted that the school has unique opportunities for impressing upon the minds of its pupils the principles of morality, and opinion seems generally to be uniting on the possibility of teaching moral truth, not only indirectly, by way of influence and example, but through definite instruction. But the use of Civics, as the vehicle for this instruction, at present too often suggests something vague and nebulous, some gloss thrown upon the subjects of History or Geography, intended to make an appeal to a few primitive instincts and ideas in the pupil, an appeal, moreover, which is by no means necessarily in the interests of morality. In America, for example, where the teaching of Civics holds a recognised place in the curriculum of most public Elementary Schools and in many High Schools, the subject is identified very largely with such a rendering of History or interpretation of Geography as will appeal to the feelings of patriotism in the children's minds. In addition, the lesson in Civics is made the occasion for a special discourse upon the meaning of the more important public events, and is sometimes supplemented by the use of patriotic songs, and of such simple ritual as has come irreverently to be known as "flag-wagging." Sometimes specific duties are inculcated by the use of object-lessons—for example, by holding mock elections—and the system is occasionally carried to the length found in the device of the School-City.

It does not need much insight or experience to show the dangers inherent in all this. The teaching of Civics through History may very easily degenerate into a mere biassed

presentation of certain historical passages, intended to stimulate patriotism, and frequently resulting in the continuance of prejudice and of national jealousy. It may be all to the good that children—for example, in Welsh schools—should be familiarised with their own Folk-lore, and taught their own national hymns and songs; but if this be done, not from the artistic or literary motive, but rather as a means for strengthening a spirit of nationalism, there is grave doubt as to the morality of the probable result. At least one fact is obvious—that almost everything will depend upon the spirit and the understanding with which the appeal to the children is made by the teacher. However good the intention, the teacher may do infinite harm by the enforcement of doubtful opinions under the colour of Moral Instruction. What infinite possibilities of racial distrust and dislike are suggested by the thought of a teacher who identifies local poverty with the purchase of foreign-made goods, or who sums up the whole duty of man as contained in the exclusion of the alien immigrant! This leads one to the opinion that, whatever else is understood by the teaching of Civics, it should not be thought of as the teaching of History with an ulterior motive. The average teacher, whether Secondary or Elementary, cannot be trusted, or encouraged, to give vent to his own prejudices, and to dignify them under the name of Moral Instruction.

We may, therefore, answer our first question with a general affirmative. The school cannot afford to forgo its opportunity of giving Moral Training, and, at an age when chivalrous motives will often find their readiest appreciation, it is well that the social and political responsibilities of later life should, in some simple form, be presented in the light of moral obligation. The question is how this may best be done. Should it be left to the ingenuity of the teacher to find the fitting opportunity in the course of general studies, as, for example, of History? Can it be achieved by entrusting to the children certain practical responsibilities of self-government, and by presenting such object-lessons as may be found in the attendance at occasional civic functions? Or is it better to make a more direct appeal to the intellect, and to devise a course of a political and economic kind, suitable to the Elementary or to the High School age? No doubt the only really sound answer to these three questions is that any one, or all three, of the methods may be used with advantage, if only it be under the guidance and inspiration of the right kind of teacher. But we have to take teachers in the bulk, and to consider what may be aimed at as the general rule. And, from this point of view, the possible

dangers of what one may call the Indirect Method have already been suggested. History, or the Geography of Empire, if well taught, cannot fail to make their appeal to the instincts of loyalty, of justice, and of self-sacrifice. They are likely to lose rather than gain when these subjects are taught not for their own sake, but as means to an end that is in danger of becoming artificial.

With regard to the second point, most good masters, particularly in Secondary Schools, already find an opportunity to enlist the co-operation of the boys in the conduct of school-life, and in the maintenance of discipline. But, surely, the essence of the whole matter will lie in its spontaneity and simplicity. To follow the American example, of encouraging the scholars to hold, with all formality, little courts of justice, and to inflict punishment upon each other for possibly trivial offences, seems to be courting disaster. It is better that, where the offences are small, they should be expiated in the rough-and-ready spirit that does not pry too curiously into the weaknesses of a school-mate, or involve the priggish sense of superiority consequent upon the exercise of the powers of Justice. Where the offences are really grave, there is more to be said for leaving the matter in the hands of the boys. But these cases are likely to be rare, and such occasions are met by the maintenance of a few old privileges on the part of the elder students, as is commonly done in English Public Schools.

The whole of social morality is not so easily identified, at least in this country, with a detailed knowledge of the mechanical routine of election processes. In most schools public spirit will be better fostered by seeing that the school institutions, such as the cricket club, or the football club, or the debating society, are managed upon constitutional principles, decently and in order, than by holding mock elections to the Presidential office, or to the House of Commons; and equally futile seem to be such devices as taking schoolboys to attend the deliberations of the local District Council or Board of Guardians.

What seems, then, to be needed, is some fairly definite course of instruction, which might, perhaps, be so divided as to give, in one part, a knowledge of the broad facts of Government, the Constitution, Parliament, the Electoral System, and of the different types of Local Government, with even a simple presentation of the main conceptions of political theory; while the other half of such a course should seek to present the elemental facts of economic structure, and simple notions with regard to the real nature of Wealth and its distribution, together with some study of those economic relationships

which most need to be viewed, in later life, from the standpoint of the general welfare. This could easily be done in a manner not too difficult for the average boy in a Secondary School, at any rate in the higher forms, by treating of such topics as the structure and functions of Trade Unions, provision against industrial risks, the principles of Arbitration, and the maintenance of the poor. But it needs to be remembered that, in all such matters, many points must arise which are matters of opinion, and, above all, one does not wish to impose an immature opinion upon schoolboys. Again, it needs some skill to present the facts of industrial life in a concrete and simple form, and in a manner that will bring out the distinction between what is good from the point of view of the present, but evil in the long run, or between what is good for the few, but at the expense of the many. Above all, in teaching such a subject, one needs to avoid the mistake of merely teaching a number of facts, no less than the opposite mistake of inculcating merely a number of abstract propositions without concrete illustrations. Thus, if Civics, in this sense, is to be a useful Secondary School subject, as I fully believe it may be made, the first and essential step to be taken is to insist that the teachers shall themselves have undergone an adequate training in their subject; and then there will be need for a text-book, which shall succeed in presenting the proposed elements of Politics and Social Economics in a form that is at once real and interesting, and sufficiently simple to convey a clear notion of the broad principles underlying the surface bustle of social life.

C. J. HAMILTON.

Editorial Note.—The subject of Civics teaching is so important, and yet so new in our Secondary curriculum, that we venture to supplement Mr. Hamilton's suggestive article by a reference to a quite admirable pamphlet that has just appeared, entitled *The Teaching of "Civics" in Public Schools*, by C. H. Spence, M.A., Head of the Modern Side at Clifton College. (Clifton: J. Baker & Son; London: Simpkin, Marshall & Co.; 1*s.* net.)

Mr. Spence defines the teaching of Civics as an attempt—

"(1) To train Public School boys to a sense of their duties and responsibilities as citizens, and as members of the great human brotherhood.

"(2) To give them some knowledge of the institutions of their own country, and the conditions under which they live.

"(3) To interest them in some of the problems, social, economic, and political, with which they will be brought face

to face when they leave school; and to prepare them to take their share, so far as may be, in helping to solve them."

He lays stress on the value of Literature, taught as such through its noblest selections, and of History, especially the history of the last hundred years, as useful school-subjects to "correlate" with instruction in Civics. History lessons he would connect with what is happening round us, and he emphasises the importance of a knowledge of local history and antiquities as a key to the general history of the country. But he, to our mind rightly, would assign, as well, some portion of the school-week to the study of Civics, as a definite end in itself. For the very suggestive account of the way in which he would spend the time allotted, we refer the reader to the pamphlet cited. In brief, taking, say, such an abstraction as Government as his topic, he would lead the boys to consider, and discuss, its chief functions, its distribution between central and local authorities, etc., explaining incidentally all the technical words which are to the boy foolishness, and have hitherto repelled him. Next, he would give each boy a *Whitaker's Almanack* as a text-book for further discussion, this time in more detail, of National and Imperial Institutions. Or, he would ask such questions as these (we venture to quote):

Who settles how many new battleships are to be built?

Who appoints the Judges?

Who sees to the mending and lighting of College Road?

Who looks after the village schools at Portbury?

How can a man avoid paying any indirect taxation?

Who has the right to vote for a Member of Parliament? Can a man have more than one vote?

Who has the right to vote for the Members of the Bristol Town Council? Of the Gloucester County Council? Of a Parish Council?

Who settles how many public-houses there should be?

Would school-boys come under an Eight Hour Bill?

Again, he gives such a topic as Old Age Pensions for a set discussion, announced in advance; makes older boys write abstracts of articles on social or economic questions, collected from the daily and monthly press; refers them to books in the school library, etc.

The whole pamphlet is of unique value, and should be consulted *in extenso* by every master who is interested in Civics teaching, and, what is of still more importance, in the training of his boys for the intelligent service of man.

C. N.
A. H. H.

CHAPTER II

TEACHING METHODS (*concluded*)

MANUAL TRAINING

ALTHOUGH Manual Training, or, as it is sometimes called, "The New Education," is a comparatively recent addition to the school curriculum, the idea underlying it is by no means a thing of yesterday or to-day. Centuries ago Comenius taught that knowledge should be derived at first hand through the senses, and his lead was followed by a series of educational reformers, all imbued with the same idea, and all pioneers of Manual Training, such as Locke, Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Herbart, and Froebel. In later years many endeavours were made in Germany, with varying success, to carry out a system of Manual Training which should be a continuation of the Kindergarten method of Froebel, but it was not until the year 1887 that a training-college was established at Leipzig, and a real effort put forth to provide a scientific training for those who intended to teach the subject.

While Germany was busy with this experiment, a parallel movement was instituted in Sweden to adopt systematic Manual Training in her schools, resulting in the introduction of the Sloyd system, now so well known throughout the educational world.

Public School Manual Training.—Manual Training, or workshop practice of any sort, in the great Public Schools of this country is of comparatively modern growth. Forty years ago it was to be found in very few, if in any, of these schools, whereas now such instruction is probably universal.

So far as I know Public School workshops and their ways, there is a very great difference between their organisation and manner of working, and the method of Manual Training that obtains in the Higher Grade and Elementary Schools. In the first case, attendance is, for the most part, voluntary and spasmodic, put in outside school hours, and the amount of time which can be devoted to the subject by individuals depends upon their games and extra work. In the second case, Manual Training counts as part of the regular school syllabus, is under the eye of one of His Majesty's Inspectors,

and grants are given from the public funds towards its maintenance and development.

In Public School workshops, almost everything depends on the individual boy, as regards the degree of proficiency to which he attains, and his zeal and industry count for much, since, as a rule, it is individual instruction and not class-teaching that is given; whereas in the Higher Grade and Elementary Schools class-teaching is necessarily the method employed. We will now try to estimate the results of each of these two systems; and first I will briefly explain our own practice at Clifton College, and assume that it is on the same lines as the method of other Public Schools, while admitting that sometimes, as at Cheltenham, Dulwich, Malvern, Uppingham, and possibly elsewhere, Elementary and Advanced Mechanics are made a part of the regular school-routine.

At Clifton, "workshop" is an extra, which can be taken as an alternative to Cadet Corps, Gymnasium, Music, and Extra Science or Mathematics. As soon as a boy decides which of these extras he will take, if he elects the workshop, he comes to the shop, enters his name in a book provided for the purpose, and then becomes a member of the Third, or lowest, Set. We divide our boys into four Sets—the Advanced Set, First Set, Second Set, and Third Set. These Sets are made up of boys from all forms in the Upper School (junior boys do not join the workshop), their places in the Sets depending on the amount of skill and diligence they have developed, and their promotion from Set to Set being in their own hands.

We start our novice on his Third Set work by making him learn to saw correctly a piece of wood about twenty-four inches long, three inches wide, and two inches thick. His next step is to plane this piece of wood, learning the names of the planes required, such as the jack and trying planes, and how to use them so as to make his piece of wood smooth, true, and correct to given size. To obtain this object requires an equal amount of patience and good temper on the part both of the pupil and of his instructor, since the wood must be made quite true on the surface and edges before we can proceed further.

The piece of wood is then divided into two equal parts, and the end of one part marked out as a tenon, to fix in a corresponding mortice in the other piece, while the end of the tenoned piece is rounded. After some amount of failure the boy can usually manage to produce a fair job, and, in addition, has laid the foundation of a knowledge of sawing, planing, mortice-and-tenoning, and the use of chisel and spokeshave,

all of which frequently recur in the course of his workshop practice. Having advanced thus far, he is encouraged to try his skill at some simple little corner-cupboard, cabinet, book-rest, or, best of all, a stout, dovetailed play-box. In this exercise his planing abilities are again requisitioned, and the mysteries of dovetailing are explained, together with the fitting on of hinges and locks. Boys in the Third Set are only allowed to work in soft timber, such as whitewood, pine, red and white deal. Many useful articles are made for home pets by boys in this Set, such as kennels, hutches, fowl-pens and runs.

When a certain familiarity in the use of tools is acquired, boys pass from the Third Set into the Second, and later into the First Set. In these two Sets the use of hard woods such as oak, walnut, mahogany, etc., is permitted, and the pupil learns to use the lathe. Boys now begin to feel that they really can do something with the tools, and many excellent articles are turned out, such as coal-boxes, revolving book-cases, book-rests, smoking-cabinets, egg-cabinets, and other things, as the auctioneer says, "too numerous to mention." Often boys bring sketches or drawings of articles they have seen elsewhere, and then try to reproduce them, with, of course, various degrees of success, but, as a rule, making a good job in the end.

In the highest, or Advanced, Set, which seldom numbers more than six members, the boys are able to work almost entirely on their own account. If the work is in wood, they prepare full, or half-size drawings, showing all the required details, then get the wood, and press, strike, or mark it out from the drawing they have made. In course of time excellent progress is made in each Set, boys joining because they have a fondness for mechanical work. Seeing that the work is entirely voluntary on their part, and has to be prosecuted out of school hours, the results compare most favourably with those of ordinary pupils or apprentices.

After a boy has been well grounded in woodwork, he is permitted to work in metal. No difficulty is found in obtaining excellent sets of castings of various-sized models of gas, oil, and steam engines, dynamos, etc., with all the necessary sheets of detailed drawing, wherein everything is set forth in a very clear and definite manner, so that, with ordinary care, serious mistakes can be easily avoided. Boys find a great difference between working metal and working wood; and I put a high value on the experience gained by a boy who, notwithstanding many failures, perseveres with his metal-work and courageously wrestles with every difficulty until he

sees his model complete and in working order. In wood, a slip is easily rectified, but with metalwork it is quite another story; and the lesson of patience and perseverance which a boy once learns in this way is never forgotten, no matter in what walk of life he may afterwards find himself. I may add that boys who intend to go to the Colonies, or into the Public Works Department of India, find their training in the school workshop a real benefit to them, as I have often been told by many old Cliftonians.

It is certainly desirable, though it is not always possible, to establish a close connection between the workshop and the drawing-school. There have been many cases where boys have made drawings of various parts of school and other apparatus, and then afterwards constructed the articles as outlined in their drawings. I have also taken Sets of boys in the Upper Fifth and the Sixth, who intended to become Civil, or Mechanical, Engineers, and who worked six hours a week in school-time, dropping German or Latin in order to attend. While the practice gained was of some benefit as regards woodwork, it was, however, not of much help in metalwork, for, as the Set was only able to put in one hour at a time, little could be done in this direction. Still, we were able to make a number of patterns of plummer-blocks, crank-heads, cylinders, slide-valves, pistons, connecting-rods, etc., and also turned out many joints used in building construction, girders, and a model bridge, showing pier-construction at the one end, and trestle-work and shoring at the other. After two or three years the Set had to be dropped, as it was impossible to arrange for the hours in the time-table; and this difficulty is always the chief obstacle to the development of such a connection between the drawing-school and work-shop.

At Clifton the fee charged for Workshop is twenty-five shillings per term, this fee covering the use of all tools, instruction, and waste, and, when any article is finished, the boy is charged for the materials actually in it, not for what has been expended in the making, an amount which sometimes comes to quite half as much again as the material in the completed article. Hard-wood articles are polished by a man brought in for the purpose, as, with the best intentions, the time at the boys' disposal does not allow them to become expert French polishers, although they can easily manage ordinary staining, varnishing, and some of the painting.

Model torpedo-boats have become very great favourites among our boys during the last few months, and some very good models have been turned out. Some, when the hull is

complete, are fitted with launch-engines, driven either by steam or by dynamos, and the interest aroused is keen indeed when these models are tested in the bath. For many years, too, during the Summer term we have made from one to six canvas-covered canoes, 12 ft. 6 in. long, strongly built with solid ribs (except in the well-hole), all copper-nailed, covered with sail-canvas, and painted with two coats of the best linseed oil and two coats of paint. Space, however, does not permit my giving a fuller list of the thousand and one articles that are within the reach of the steady average member of a school workshop, and the experience and training thus gained are, as I have said, of no little value in after life.

Manual Training in Higher Grade and Elementary Schools.—The subject was not introduced into these schools without considerable opposition, often from quarters where such opposition was least expected. In the year 1885 an experimental class was established at the Beethoven Street School, London; but, as the Code at that time contained no provision for the cost of Manual Training, the auditor of the Local Government Board promptly surcharged the account. Nothing daunted, the School Board authorities had various interviews with the Education Department, with the object of having the subject regarded as a "specific subject" under the Code, but without success. Their next step was to appeal for help to the City and Guilds of London, an appeal which met with a ready and generous response, and, owing to this help, they were enabled to establish six "Centres" for instruction. It was not, however, until 1890 that the Education Code sanctioned Manual Training as a live sub-section in the school curriculum. Since then the work has made very rapid strides, until it has reached a useful and recognised place in Elementary Education. It will perhaps be interesting to give a brief outline of the method in Higher Grade and Elementary Schools.

All boys over eleven years of age are eligible, and instruction in woodwork is the generally accepted form of Manual Training. Metalwork is, however, also carried on in some of the larger cities or towns. The training is given in "Centres," rooms or workshops forming part of the school buildings, some of which are well lighted and ventilated, and fitted with every requisite necessary for teaching purposes, while other Centres are not so satisfactory, as far as the building itself is concerned.

For instructional purposes boys attend Centres once each week. Two hours is the minimum duration of a lesson, and in some cases half-day attendances are the rule. Drawing is

an important side of the training, and a properly executed drawing, dimensioned to scale, is generally required before the practical work is taken in hand. Small models are then made, which need not necessarily be useful or ornamental, if only the interest of the pupil is aroused and his mental faculties stimulated. A great difference is to be observed in the varying abilities of the boys, and it requires great patience and tact on the part of the teacher to retain the interest of the whole class, to help on the slow and backward boys, and at the same time not to retard those quicker pupils who readily execute both the drawing and the work. A wide field of interest is incidentally opened up in the study of Nature, through the knowledge gained of the forms and growth and localities of the various kinds of timber.

The teachers or instructors of Manual Training in the Public Schools are men of various professions—Royal and Civil Engineers, mechanics, or carvers—and the majority have only their workshop duties to attend to. At Clifton, however, we keep a staff capable of doing all our repairs except the larger painting and masonry jobs, and I am responsible to the Secretary of the Council for the general upkeep of the college buildings and boarding houses, and for the preparation of plans and specifications for all alterations, repairs, and additions.

The teachers in the Higher Grade and Elementary Schools are in part trained and certificated schoolmasters, and in part men who have been specially trained for this work. The Board of Education recognises two certificates as qualifying to teach the subject, one granted by the City and Guilds of London, and the other by the Educational Handwork Association.

At Nääs (Sweden) three courses are held annually for the training of teachers, one in winter and two in summer, each course lasting six weeks. A similar course is taken at Leipzig, and at both places the classes are open to, and attended by, a large number of students from all countries; and no doubt it is owing to the inspiration derived by students visiting these centres that the subject of Manual Training has created such an interest in our own country.

In conclusion, I wish to thank Mr. J. W. Watson, of the Higher Grade School, St. George, Bristol, for much valuable information about Manual Training in Elementary Schools.

A. D. THOMAS.

PART IV

EDUCATION OUT OF SCHOOL HOURS

I. PREFECTS

II. "HOUSES" IN DAY SCHOOLS

III. GAMES

a. IN DAY SCHOOLS

b. IN PUBLIC BOARDING SCHOOLS

IV. THE OFFICERS' TRAINING CORPS

V. LADS' CLUBS AND THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

VI. SCHOOL CAMPS

VII. SCHOOL EXCURSIONS

VIII. SCHOOL SOCIETIES

IX. OLD BOYS' SOCIETIES

X. THE SCHOOL MAGAZINE

XI. SCHOOL LIBRARIES

XII. BOYS AND THEIR HEALTH

XIII. THE HOME AND THE SCHOOL

CHAPTER I

PREFECTS

IT is by most agreed that the Prefect system, by which the senior boys are set to rule the school in a great part of its life, is one of the most unqualified successes of English education, though there are not wanting some, even in Public Schools, who hate it, or rather hate that abuse of disciplinary power which still obtains, but is no necessary part of the system. A cynic has said that the Public Schools are places where boys are set to train and educate each other, while a certain number of distinguished scholars look on. He may have said this to indicate his opinion that Public School masters have carried to undue limits that rare educational wisdom which consists in knowing when not to interfere: there are, at any rate, many schools in which he would have grounds for making the criticism. But the system is established, and, far better than most educational theories, has stood the wear and tear of time. Since the days of Arnold, this training, of which he developed the Wykehamist tradition, working, it must never be forgotten, on a peculiarly suitable national character, has succeeded in turning out men with capacity both for obedience and government, men capable of building, reconstructing, and maintaining an empire.

Advantages of the System.—To educated Englishmen the system is so familiar, and varies so little in its essentials between school and school, that space need not be wasted on description. The result of it is that a boy endowed with brains, or a capacity for leadership, or both, is at an impressionable age called upon to undertake responsibility, and to feel that in the hands of himself and his equals are placed the good name, the traditions, and much of the order of the school. He comes to the task fresh from a probationary period in which he has been made to yield unquestioning obedience, and that same obedience he in turn exacts. He learns instinctively to feel a strong sympathy for discipline, supposed

to be an English characteristic, but not really characteristic either of the lower middle-classes or of the working-men of the country. The school in its turn gains the great advantage of enlisting its leading boys on the side of law and order, and an alliance is produced throughout between the masters and the best boys, which renders friendship natural, and the exercise of influence easy. Thus the Prefect system is interwoven with that other element of English school-life which makes for excellence, the friendship of master and boy; and, when once it is established, a school runs itself.

Such a position of responsibility carries with it high honour, publicly marked in ways which vary from school to school, but which usually take the form of special rights, such as the wearing of a badge, the possession of a private room, access to masters' libraries, special holidays, and frequently a state dinner with the Headmaster. It is humorously said that the bulk of Prefects never again attain to the same position of authority and high respect in the rest of their lives. But it must not be forgotten that these distinguished persons are of not more than seventeen or eighteen years of age, and it is a fair question to ask whether they prove apt administrators.

Objections: (1) **Excessive Conservatism.**—The answer must be, on the whole, in the affirmative. The school ways and the school tradition have been so bred into them that they are not really in doubt on any ordinary question. They know what to do, and do it. They offer to the observer a refreshing instance of the simplicity of distant days before codes were committed to writing. Hence their intense conservatism, which has its weak side, and the frequent answer, which causes so much despair in the reformer's heart, "It won't do, though it may be right in theory, for it has never been the custom at '——.'" The blank may be filled with the name of any Public Boarding School known to the reader.

(2) **Corporal Punishment.**—But in one respect the Prefect system, as established in the Public Schools, seems to us wholly and indefensibly wrong, and that is in the concession to boys of the right of inflicting corporal punishment on their fellows. Schoolmasters, who write so delightfully on the Prefect, are content to omit this fact, or to pass it over with bare mention. But they cannot be unaware that it affects some of their own colleagues with horror, and would sicken the nation, were the excesses to which corporal punishment is carried at times, and in some schools, made generally known. These boys are immature, and for the sake of their own development are set to learn how to govern. Yet there is unhesitatingly placed

in their hands the one instrument of discipline which, of all, is most capaple of abuse, and which is frequently withheld from the Assistant-masters. There is no proper check on its infliction, and no discrimination of individuals. The boys are allowed to be brutal, and, being boys, often take pleasure in their own barbarism. Cases are known where a boy's garments may be ripped to tatters under the strokes; where, after punishment, the victim may have to go to the infirmary of the school. It is not said that outrages of this kind are characteristic, but that they can happen at all makes the blood boil; and it is to all outsiders inconceivable that these things can take place in a society governed by scholars and gentlemen, with their acquiescence and approval. Clearly, Prefects can, under such conditions, tyrannise with impunity, and wreak their spite under the guise of justice; and it is not their fault so much as that of the men who tolerate the system. It is a relic of the days when English schools were brutal, and very little else; it is wholly demoralising in its effects, and is the darkest stain on the English Public Schools to-day. The worst thing that was said of Arnold was that he produced "prigs": are his successors in our Public Schools to substitute "bullies"?

Prefects in Day Schools.—In Day Schools the Prefect system is less vigorous and less successful, as it is bound to be in the nature of things. Life out of school does not offer anything which can compare for a moment with the conditions of a Public School. The boys scatter to their homes at the end of lessons: "*cedunt in alia iura.*" Frequently, too, in Day Schools the leaving age is too low to admit of the possibility of choosing Prefects: no one could entrust authority to boys of fifteen. But in the greater Day Schools the system, though it has less scope, is of the utmost value, and is never altogether dispensed with. In the corridors of the school, at change of lessons, in the playground and playing-fields, at "break," and on half-holidays, in the "Houses" in particular, if that system has been adopted, and in the streets of the town, the Prefect can make himself felt, and can do good work. The mistake in the past has been that Prefects have been appointed, but nothing definite has been required of them. The position has been regarded merely as the title of certain senior boys, requiring no action, and it has therefore carried no weight. But the Headmaster of a great Day School who allows this nebulous condition to continue is throwing away one of his best instruments. Boys are always reasonable and willing, and he has only to make clear to his senior boys what he wishes

them to do, and to make clear by the most drastic action, if need be, that the whole of his authority is behind them, to establish in a very few months a very salutary tradition of discipline. Disorder in the streets, in trains, at out-matches, on the playground, will not wholly disappear, of course; but it will greatly decrease, and be kept within limits when it does occur. The same distinctions as are granted in Boarding Schools can all be granted, so far as is thought fit; together with all the same disciplinary powers, under whatever restrictions may seem good; with the exception of the right to inflict corporal punishment, which cannot be thought of in a Day School, because what goes on there must bear the light of day.

Common Difficulties.—In whatever type of school the system exists, there are some general difficulties which invariably occur, but solve themselves in practice. There may rise to the top of a school a clever, but very young boy, or a clever recluse of no influence. Subject to a rule that no boy shall claim Sixth Form privileges until he is sixteen, the best course is not to hesitate to appoint such boys to be Prefects. It is surprising how the most unpromising material develops under responsibility, and how the shy and unresponsive student will "come out." In Boarding Schools it is further essential that the claims of intellect should not be disregarded, since the force of the current of popular opinion runs so strongly towards the worship of the physical. Just because it does this, the claims of the athlete cannot, in in their turn, be overlooked, since in all English schools the boy of great prowess on the playing-field is bound to exercise much influence, which can be of great service if it be enlisted on the right side. The Headmaster who with the best intentions refuses to recognise mere matter as against mind, is only, under the conditions of boy-life, shutting his eyes to facts. The object is to produce as many boys as possible who combine within themselves good moral, mental, and physical character, and he cannot with wisdom disregard any of the three elements. Finally, and again particularly in Boarding Schools, though to a not much less degree in some of the Day Schools, the work of a Prefect makes great demands on a boy's time, and interferes with his personal prospects. But the answer which is usually made is right, that it is the business of the school, not to train the intellect only, but to produce "men"; that the Prefect is learning to bear responsibility and to govern; that he is forming character, the surest basis of success. The loss is only apparent; it is not real. At critical times special indulgences can always

be granted, and it would be contrary to the whole English canon if boys were trained at school to think only of themselves. Arnold's words are true, "You are capable of bearing, without injury, what to others might be a burden, and therefore to diminish your duties and lessen your responsibility would be no kindness, but a degradation—an affront to you and to the school."

CHAPTER II

"HOUSES" IN DAY SCHOOLS

IN a Boarding School the constant association of boy with boy, and of boy with master, tends to produce a spirit of devotion to the school, and of mutual understanding between man and boy, which is necessarily much more difficult of realisation in the Day School; and in the "House" system, as existing almost universally in the Boarding Schools, we have an instrument admirably calculated to foster and promote such a spirit.

In addition to the spirit of loyalty to the School, and the lesser—but still not negligible—spirit of loyalty to the Form, there is a similar spirit of loyalty to the House, and it hardly needs reflection to see the immense possibilities for good that lie herein. The more intimate connection between boys of the same House naturally gives rise to a feeling of comradeship which otherwise can hardly be attained; every boy can realise that the honour of the House is his honour—that its trials and triumphs are his own. And, as a member of a smaller unit, almost every boy, however young, can hope that some day, at any rate, he too may be able to do something for his House. He may never rise to be head of the School, but he may be head of his House—he may never be a School Prefect, but he may be a House Prefect—he may never represent the School in athletics, but he may represent his House. Then again, as regards the position between the boy and his House-master, what a much better chance the latter possesses of getting really to understand the character of his boys, and of making his influence felt, of being able to encourage the strong, and to hold out the helping hand to the weak!

If we are right in assuming that there are such possibilities for good in the House system of a Boarding School, surely it is worth our while to consider if such a system can in any way be engrafted on the Day School. Any such system must necessarily be more or less artificial, and the best that can be

discovered must fall far short of the ideal. Various plans have been adopted in different schools; the boys may be grouped in Divisions or "Houses" according to the locality of their homes, or they may be arbitrarily divided by some other method.

Of course, in the Public School, which is essentially, or even to any considerable extent, a Boarding School, with merely a percentage—large or small—of day-boys, the difficulty will not be great. There is always the House spirit amongst the boarders to help to encourage a similar spirit amongst the day-boys, and there is always the organisation of the former in their Houses to serve as a model for introducing some similar kind of organisation amongst the latter. Probably there are special circumstances in each case, which decide what is the best form for any such organisation to take, and it is not likely that such schools will need to ask what is the best scheme that can be evolved for a school which is essentially a Day School.

The earliest attempt to develop the "House" system that the writer has been able to trace, in a typical Day School, was made by the then Headmaster of Bristol Grammar School (Mr. Robert L. Leighton) early in 1892. By him the school was divided into three "Divisions," according to the locality of the boys' homes, and to these three a fourth, consisting of some twenty boarders, was afterwards added. No doubt the idea was partly suggested by the close proximity of Clifton College, with its day-boys divided into "North Town" and "South Town."

At first sight, the method of division according to locality seems the most natural one, and appears less artificial than any other that is likely to be found. But it suffers from several serious drawbacks: in the first place it is difficult to arrive at any division into districts which secures that the Houses shall contain even an approximately equal number of boys, and, even if such a successful distribution is made originally, the districts from which boys are drawn do not remain the same, so that some House inevitably becomes stronger, as another grows weaker, and eventually it becomes necessary that a fresh adjustment should be made—a thing undesirable in itself, as breaking the continuity of tradition, and difficult, if not impossible, to accomplish with satisfaction to all concerned. But, above all, it makes no provision for that bond between master and boy, which we have seen to be of such inestimable value in the House system of the Boarding School. Masters may be specially attached to such Houses, but it cannot fail to be felt that their association with the House is

even more accidental than the artificial bond which binds the House together, and their influence must suffer accordingly.

In many other Day Schools efforts have been made to establish some such House system, and various schemes have been tried. Houses have been artificially formed, and called after different founders or benefactors of the school: sometimes they are known by other names, such as "Goths," "Magpies," "Hornets," etc., more or less calculated to appeal to the imagination of boys. Such a plan has the obvious advantage of making it possible to keep the Houses numerically equal in strength. But if, instead of calling the Houses by purely fanciful names, House-masters are appointed, and the Houses are known by the names of these masters, the natural model of the Boarding School is followed much more closely, and we at once get that bond between master and boy upon which so much stress has been laid above.

This is not a visionary ideal—the plan has been tried with success in various schools. So far as the writer is aware, the first Day School to adopt such a system was King Edward's High School, Birmingham. In January 1904, four such "Houses" were formed, and the scheme met with immediate success. A similar scheme was inaugurated at Bury Grammar School in 1905, and in January 1907, the Headmaster of Bristol Grammar School (Mr. Cyril Norwood), in view of the unavoidable drawbacks of the local "Divisions," to which reference has been made above, instituted an arrangement of the same kind. Similar schemes are in existence in several other schools; but it is worth noting that, in the three instances quoted above, the system was started quite independently, and, so far as its promoters at the time were aware, their plan—for a day school—was entirely novel and original. In these three schools the working of the scheme has proved to be in all essentials practically identical—a fact which would seem to go far to prove that the principle is sound.

The artificiality of the original division is naturally the chief drawback to such a system; but it is wonderful how quickly a House spirit begins to show itself, and of course everything is done to foster such a spirit. Brothers naturally are placed in the same House, and, in succeeding generations there is every probability of a healthy tradition becoming firmly established; new boys are heard eagerly discussing their chance of getting into Y's or Z's; and, above all, the Master comes to be regarded as inseparable from his House —the very cause of its existence—not as a more or less necessary adjunct to its welfare.

It is in the playing-field, and in the outdoor life of a school generally, that the social bond of the House most naturally and most speedily makes itself felt. House competitions for Seniors and Juniors can be arranged, in cricket, football, running, swimming, or any of the other branches of athletics which are usually encouraged in the school, on the natural lines which would be followed in a boarding school; and no one who has seen the real enthusiasm displayed at a House match, and the intense patriotism amongst the members of the contending Houses, can doubt for a moment that the artificiality of the original formation of the House is soon forgotten, or that the individual members take a real and wholesome pride in their corporate existence.

This House spirit need not be confined to athletics; the winning of a scholarship, or, to a lesser extent, even of a school prize, is a legitimate source of gratification to the whole House, and it should not be impossible to encourage, in consequence, a healthy spirit of emulation in work as well as in play. In fact, once the House spirit has begun to manifest itself, it soon becomes apparent in countless different ways, with obviously beneficial effects upon the life and tone of the school.

If such a House were worked upon ideal lines it would probably contain some forty or fifty boys, for it should be large enough to furnish teams for Senior and Junior competitions without difficulty, and at the same time to make it an honour, not too easily won, to represent the House; it should not be so large as to prevent even the smallest boy hoping that he may be able to do something for the good of the House, or as to cause him to feel lost, as an insignificant unit, amongst his comrades; above all, it should not be too large for the House-master to keep a hold upon his boys, and to have some knowledge and understanding of each of them individually. For, in such a House, the ideal House-master would be thoroughly well acquainted with the character and environment of every one of his boys: he would be in active sympathy with their successes and aspirations, as well as with their trials and disappointments: he would know where to praise and where to blame: he would be ever ready with a word of counsel to the strong or encouragement to the weak: above all, he would have seen grow up under him the boys from whom he would pick his Prefects, confident that he might safely leave the honour and tone of the House in their hands, and that amongst them he would never fail to find a boy admirably suited for the important and responsible position

of House Captain—a boy who enjoyed the entire confidence of his fellows, and whose influence amongst them was great, and was used wholly for good.

Such an ideal condition is in the nature of things rarely attainable; even in a Boarding School the House-master who can approximate to the ideal, cannot often be met, and in a Day School the difficulties are necessarily much greater. In a Day School the House-master has comparatively few opportunities of getting in touch with his boys, and he has constantly to choose between the dangers of seeming indifference and of over-interference. After all, the time which a boy spends at his school forms but a small fraction of his waking hours—roughly, some five or six (including play-hours) out of some fourteen or fifteen, and that for less than three-quarters of the year—and of this fraction, the time when he is likely to come under the influence of his House-master is short indeed. Even if we neglect the natural human imperfections of the House-master, and assume that he is a man ideally suited for the post, we must admit that his task is both difficult and delicate. He must probably be content quietly to make his influence felt, and be satisfied to win the trust and confidence of his boys, knowing that, in any difficulty, they will turn to him for guidance.

There is, however, one channel of communication which certainly he should not neglect: if he is wise, he will endeavour to get into touch with the parents of his boys, either unofficially, or at any of the regular School functions, and to take the opportunity of discussing with them the character and the possible failings of the boy. He will have much to learn from the parent, and, on the other hand, a few tactful and judicious words may frequently have the effect of opening the eyes of the fond (but often foolish) father or mother, and of enabling them to see things in a different light, especially if they happen to be ignorant of the advantages afforded by the outdoor life of the School: they may even be brought to understand that it is better for their boy to play a game of football with his fellows, than to go out to tea with his little sisters! At any rate, such intercourse will give the House-master an opportunity of understanding what the home influence is, of profiting by it if it is good, and if, alas! it is foolish, or sometimes even bad, of making allowances for it, of looking with more charitable eyes upon the failings of the boy, and of endeavouring, in the hours spent at the School, to compensate for the short-comings of the Home.

H. G. FORD.

CHAPTER III

GAMES

A. In Day Schools

THE day-school master is probably right in his belief that his type of school is in a happier position in relation to games than the boarding school, just because games can never become so exacting and so destructive of other interests. It is obvious that boys shut up for thirteen weeks within the limits of one domain find their lives sharply divided into two portions—one spent within the class-room, and one without; and, since in their case the joy of life finds its expression in physical activity, there can be no doubt which portion of their lives will the more kindle their enjoyment and excite their interest. Time only is needed to produce an absurd exaltation of athletics; and that exaltation means that "to the fourth-form boy the captain of the eleven," as the Hon. George Lyttelton says,[1] "is a far more awe-inspiring figure than the Headmaster," and the young undergraduate may deem the status of the rowing Blue above that of the Cabinet Minister. An unnatural system of training must of necessity work itself out in a distortion of standards. But the day-school boy has, besides the class-room and the playing-field, the constant influence of his home and the life of his city to neutralise the narrowness of his outlook; he has other insistent interests, and he cannot escape the knowledge, if he would, that his world is not all the world. In such schools games can be developed almost to the utmost within the limits necessarily imposed by their position, and a great portion, if not the whole, of the undoubted good derived from them in the Public Schools can here also be derived, to the benefit of the boys in healthiness of body, in sanity of mind, and in unselfishness of public spirit.

There are still some people who, in regard to games, ask

[1] *The Public Schools from Within*; article on "Athletics," p. 192.

the old question, "*Cui bono?*" and still some parents, unfortunately, who endeavour to act on their belief that a boy's only duty is to mind his book. Such parents are few and are becoming fewer; but their opposition makes it worth while to state once again why in the day school organised games are a necessity. The reasons can be put forward in brief: they are not in dispute. Healthy young life must have constant exercise; activity repressed in one direction will show itself in other, and possibly morbid, outlets. Bad cases of bullying and constant fighting are no longer known in schools, because the boys' activities find a normal and constant vent on the playing-field. There also is character formed. "What practical good is it," asks the father, "that my boy should be able to make a century?" This: that he has not reached that skill without learning to submit to other boys, to control himself, to be in a measure unselfish, and in the end to spend himself in controlling and helping others. Finally, games more than any other part of school-life form public spirit, and teach the lesson of co-operation. The boy learns to play not for himself, but for his form, his "house," or his school. Here especially the discipline of games is essential to a day school, for the boys, as a class, do not learn any sense of public spirit from their parents, nor can the inspiration of this spirit be expected of those whose daily life is spent amidst the methods of modern business and the processes of an individualist society. But discipline and unselfishness the school must somehow teach, and it has no better instrument to its hand than games.

This, then, being the aim when in day schools we attempt to organise and develop games, we shall clearly choose what, for want of a better name, may be called "corporate" games; for the winter terms Association or Rugby football, hockey, or lacrosse, and for the summer, cricket, remembering that the latter is in several obvious respects inferior to the winter games for our purposes. But we can take warning from the boarding schools, by preventing the particular games we select for the main body of boys from becoming a tyranny for the minority; we ought not to throw on one side as a "waster" the boy who is clumsy and slow on the football-field or a duffer with the bat. This is, indeed, easier to say than to do. The fives-courts—and every school should have them—will provide for some; for, though by some fives is condemned as an individualistic game, it affords fine exercise, constant training to eye and limb, and can be used for form, house, and school contests as much as any other. Cross-country running in the winter will provide for others; but in my

opinion it is much overrated. It is interesting if it involves racing; but the highest medical opinion declares racing over long distances to be fraught with physical danger to a boy in his teens, nor are indignant letters from the toughest old nonagenarian who ever won steeplechases at school likely to shake that expert judgment. If it does not involve racing it is good exercise, doubtless, for those who are not shortwinded, but it is deadly dull. No one who has seen a big side going out for a compulsory run could ever say that the boys looked either happy or interested. Its great merit is that it disposes of a large number of boys very simply, and gives them as much exercise as they want. But it teaches nothing except endurance. We need to take a little more trouble, and to organise groups interested in botany, geology, or nature study of some kind, and others interested in the history of the countryside; here we can bring the bicycle into our service, which schoolmasters have hitherto regarded with suspicion. It can be used frequently in winter and regularly in summer; it takes masters and boys out under conditions of fresh air and companionship. In the summer, swimming also should be allowed to count as an option, and activities can be found in military interests. No one can complain of insufficient exercise who has undergone a thorough drill on the parade-ground, or a couple of hours' skirmishing in the open field; and it seems possible that the art of scouting, with enthusiasm for which a popular general has recently fired so many boys not attached to any organisation, can be brought into the service of the school by a master willing to develop it, and made a force working for unity and not disintegration. Indeed there are practically only two types of exercise which I would exclude—lawn-tennis and golf; the former because of the cost of upkeep of the courts and the demands of space; the latter for many reasons, the chief of which are that day schools cannot hope to have courses, that the game leads peculiarly to self-centred preoccupation, and that it requires no vigorous activity.

This formidable list of possible forms of exercise demands that the staff should be willing to co-operate with enthusiasm; but willing co-operation in what is for the good of the school, be it said to the credit of the much-abused and shamefully paid Assistant-master, is seldom lacking. It is certain that the young Assistant-masters can, in a day school, help in a great variety of ways, and, by so doing, very probably double their opportunities for doing good and their influence in their own class-rooms. But the help should be voluntary, and it is wrong, as is now done in some cases, to make this help a

matter of contract and signed agreement. Any master, whether he is athletic or not, can help to organise some optional alternative for the regular games, and make it instructive and healthy. The athletes will find their place in the regular school games, and can, by their behaviour in the school-field, do more to set the right tone among the imitative boys around them than by hundreds of dissertations on morals in school. They can assist the games both by playing themselves and by coaching; but there are two dangers of which they should beware. They are young, and may easily forget, in the pleasure of taking part with the foremost, that a schoolmaster's business is rather to teach the imperfect than to give demonstrations of perfection. And they may, by their very enthusiasm and force of leadership, destroy the initiative of the older boys and impair their responsibility. The result of such well-meant keenness will be felt to the disadvantage of the whole school. There is only one department which masters should monopolise or rigidly control, and that is finance. It is not fair and it is not wise to entrust this to boys; but it is necessary to associate boys with the spending of money and with the balance-sheet, in order that they may see an example of absolute honesty and care, and learn to recognise the right that all have to some provision out of a fund to which all contribute.

Day schools are town schools, and it is generally a difficulty to find sufficient ground for the games. There is in some cases no way out of the difficulty, and there the school remains incomplete. But, where the space is limited, something can be done by alternating the half-holidays, and much can be done by the Local Authority, whenever these authorities wake up to the fact that public parks are places to play in, and not fenced-off areas for the erection of sham rockeries, melancholy ornamental waters, and notices to keep off the grass. A fair portion must doubtless be reserved for babies, for the old, and for women; but the greater part should be kept for games, and to this all schools, from the Elementary to the Secondary, should have right of access. No one who has seen an open space like, for instance, Durdham Downs at Clifton, on a Saturday afternoon, crowded in every part with every type of team and every kind of game, can either forget it or be in doubt a moment afterwards as to the right use of these open spaces. A school without sufficient playground is only half a school. But, while speaking of grounds, one caution is necessary. So much has been done in Public Schools and Preparatory Schools in producing perfect wickets and perfect fields for

play that boys expect too much, and are apt to think themselves ill-used if all the conditions are not faultless at every season of the year. The cure for this is to make them do things themselves, roll their own wickets, put up their own goal-posts, and, if necessary, level and weed their own fields.

There remains for consideration the question of Athletic Sports, and the giving or withholding of prizes, a subject not peculiar to any type of school, but of importance to all. The crowd and the prizes, the band and the bunting, mark off the sports from all other games, and, as Mr. Paton, to whom I am indebted for much that is here said, has well remarked, "It is this element of publicity and of prize-winning which makes athletic sports, as generally administered, the least desirable of all our physical activities. Publicity, I suppose, there must be, but individual prize-winning I would gladly abolish altogether." That drastic step has been taken by Mr. Paton at Manchester Grammar School. He has made his appeal to public spirit, and he has been rewarded with increased entries and better performances. On grounds of logic and general principles of morals I believe his position to be unassailable. But the same results will not always follow, because they have followed in this particular case, and similar action has resulted in another school in a refusal of the boys to enter and of the parents to attend. This much is certain, that since the Homeric age men have been "pot-hunters," and athletic sports have been associated at various times with swords and cauldrons, helmets and slaves, challenge-cups and electro-plate. "To run for the prize" is a commonplace of all languages, and an instinct of all Western mankind. Ideally it is wrong and indefensible, and so are the prizes for intellectual excellence. Nevertheless, in practical politics it is wise for the average man to do what is expedient, and to work with a due regard for history and for public opinion. But, that in so doing he should work, if he is a Headmaster, for the abolition of individual prize-winning now or in the future, there seems no reasonable doubt, if the theories generally held about the place of games in education have a word of truth in them.

C. N.

B. In Public Boarding Schools

Rudyard Kipling's "flannel'd fool at the wicket" and "muddied oaf in the goal" have passed into history. The phrases stung the Public Schools, but they are not repentant.

For how should the author of *Stalky & Co.* know anything of Public School games? Indeed, in so far as his moral was "Love your country and learn to shoot," have not the Public Schools already complied? They celebrate Empire Day, and at Aldershot they can point to their Rifle Corps "marching along, fifty score strong, great-hearted gentlemen." The problem of Athleticism? Oh, yes, they are alive to that! Have not the Headmasters threshed (not to say thrashed) the subject threadbare? Did not Bowen put in the wittiest of pleas for the average boy, and translate it into practice by playing with them daily until he was turned sixty? There are still complaints? Well, you know, there will always be some one to "grouse" about everything. "He was probably no earthly good at anything himself—you know the sort of fellow; what can be done with specimens like him?"

There lies the real problem. And it is this with which the Public Schools, though always dimly acquainted, and indignant in a puzzled sort of way, have never really attempted to deal. The old idea that all boys are devoted to ball-games is grotesquely untrue. Yet it is on that supposition that we organise the recreations in every Public School. The result is that at school the whole machinery of play is organised for the pleasure of about one-fifth of the total number; and, when school-days are over, we are a byword among the nations for our inability to put away childish things. The glaring absurdity compels the question, "How has this state of things arisen?" As years are counted, it is a recent development enough. There must be many living who can remember its beginning, and have noted all its subsequent stages. And I feel sure that they will not contradict me when I assert that the athletic movement was the necessary outcome of the boarding-school system. As these schools grew, it became a paramount necessity to organise and control play-time. For obvious reasons the supervision of a master would be awkward, and might be ineffective.[1] The boys were therefore encouraged to organise themselves, and an almost military *régime* has been established. But why for ball-games only? The reason here is moral and disciplinary. To learn how to win and how to lose, to play fair, to subordinate self for the corporate good—these are the more obvious lessons that athletics are supposed to teach; I say "supposed," because, if this is true, it is difficult to account for the obstinate individualism and commercial dishonesty that so disfigure English life. Now, if I am right in my idea of the origin of the present system and the reasons

[1] The development of the elder-brother theory of the Assistant-master has since secured the supervision without its drawbacks.

for it, it is evident that the neglect of individual tastes has been a deliberate policy, and it would be a forlorn hope to suggest its immediate renouncement. But that is not even what I desire. I am content to admit the disciplinary advantage of compulsory games, so long as the Day School is the exception. And I believe in the moral advantages if only counteracting influences would allow them fair scope. But I deny that the system need be so rigid, so all-devouring, as it is to-day. I would suggest that a minimum number of days should be agreed upon, sufficient to safeguard the advantages described, and that the surplus should be freed for the reform that I am about to indicate. It is no novelty; it is already a reality at such places as Bedales; and even in the Public Schools there have been tentative experiments in its direction.

I would give a wider meaning altogether to the term "games." It should include all forms of healthy outdoor occupation—gardening, bee-keeping, farming, fruit-farming, poultry-farming, collecting, geologising, archæologising, etc. And to the pursuits that imply a workshop roof, like carpentering or engineering, should be extended the preferential treatment that is now reserved for fives and rackets. These occupations, where they are practical rather than artistic or scientific (in the narrower sense), should be under the direction of an expert.[1] The boys could organise themselves in these departments as is done in that of games. The instruction should be scientific, but essentially practical. Thus, farming should begin with the elements of the art of farming, but one of the first things taught should be the properties of the soil in the particular district farmed. And the school table should be provided with the produce actually grown on the estate, in garden or in farm; while the surplus, if there were any, could be utilised in one of two ways—in giving boys some practical idea of markets and the sale of produce, or in the finer way (while present inequalities continue) of distribution among the neighbouring poor. Experiment should also be encouraged on a space set apart for the purpose, and the reasons for success or failure carefully analysed. So, too, carpentering should be practical—that is, under the direction of an expert carpenter,—what is needed in the school or on the school estate being done, as far as possible, by the boys themselves. A record of the work should be kept, and parents and outsiders encouraged to inspect both the working and the results. And the same (*mutatis mutandis*) should apply to the

[1] Bedales has added to its staff an expert carpenter and gardener, as most Public Schools have a gymnasium instructor.

geological, natural history, artistic, or archæological pursuits of other boys.

I believe that in this way "school games" would be less divorced from life than they are at present, while the healthy interest and proficiency in cricket, football, fives, rackets, lawn-tennis, and golf would gain rather than suffer. The quicker the brain, the better, *ceteris paribus*, the player of games, is to my mind a maxim incontrovertible. And, on the other hand, the opportunities and training indicated above would make it much more likely that the Public School boy would have a quick brain and ready hands. His plunge into life would be less of a cold plunge; for he would have wider interests and practical knowledge, and would have been, if distantly, yet in touch with the things that afterwards he will be obliged to handle.

H. LIONEL ROGERS.

CHAPTER IV

THE OFFICERS' TRAINING CORPS

THE new title still bears a strange aspect, but it represents something more than the old Cadet Corps under another name: it marks a welcome advance both in status and in efficiency. It means that the schools are to be taken seriously, that a standard is being fixed for them at which they are to aim, and that this standard will be required of them. The military authorities will no longer be satisfied with a certain number of drills performed with a very varying degree of excellence, and the selection of an elaborately trained shooting Eight to win renown at Bisley. Cadets, before they leave school, will be expected to pass an examination of satisfactory difficulty, and to obtain Certificate A before they enter the Senior Division at a University, and qualify for the holding of Certificate B. Space does not permit me to give a full description of this carefully thought-out system, which is drawn up in a practical spirit to supply officers, and to save them from the necessity of beginning at the beginning again on the barrack-square when they enter the Army. That all who seek a commission in the Army will enter the ranks of the Training Corps, is made sufficiently certain by the fact that the holding of Certificate B means two hundred marks to a candidate offering himself for Woolwich or Sandhurst. But that in its present form it will greatly assist the supply of officers to the Territorial Force is another question, which needs to be threshed out at once.

The great and indefensible fault of the scheme as it stands is that it differentiates between types of school, and offers the world the edifying spectacle of one Government Department flouting the schools aided by another. Bad as this is in principle, it would not matter much in practice if the Officers' Training Corps were meant to supply officers to the Army only, since these mainly come from the greater Public

Schools. But there never was any question about the supply of these. The whole purpose of the new scheme is to improve the qualifications of the men entering the Auxiliary Forces. In spite of this, the regulations draw a distinction between schools receiving a grant from the Board of Education—in other words, the schools which have fallen into line in the national system, have submitted to inspection, and are not particularly well-off—and other schools more fortunately (or unfortunately) circumstanced. To the latter the State pays an annual grant for every boy over fifteen who makes himself efficient, provides him with ammunition, and furnishes rifles in case of an increase of the corps. To the former the State refuses the grant unless the boy is over sixteen, and, in case of increase of numbers, furnishes no rifles. In the independent schools the boys are in general very well off, pay a high subscription, and could as a matter of fact make themselves efficient with no more aid than they had in the past. In the "grant" schools the boys are of the middle class, but not so well-to-do, pay a much smaller subscription, and leave school on the average about the age of sixteen. In the case of the rich, money and all encouragement are given; in the case of the poor, they are refused, and everything is done to discourage. Yet this type, the local school, is exactly the type which will furnish officers for the Territorial troops in large numbers, and offers the very field in which the War Office, working hand in hand with the Board of Education, should have striven to produce the best local training and a fine local patriotism. The cause of this illogical injustice lies in the nervousness of the Labour party and the extreme Radical wing, who feared militarism in the schools of the people, and the weakness of a Government which, in those days before ominous by-elections, was too much swayed by its own tail. As a result, a democratic Government, in floating a scheme of military reform whose whole appeal is to local patriotism, offers subventions to the non-local schools, and refuses them to the local—gluts the richer, and starves the poorer. Need anything more be said?

A second grave weakness from the Territorial standpoint is that all the corps are divorced from their local connection, and brought into direct relation with the War Office. They are to be left to themselves from one year's end to another, except for an annual visit from an Inspecting Officer, who may know nothing of the school or of its surroundings. The local Territorial organisation is cast upon one side; and yet it seems that there each corps would have found the most sympathetic assistance and encouragement, simply because

the Territorials would have sought their officers from its ranks. There was surely no reason why the non-local schools should not have been given their freedom, if they desired it, and the local schools allowed to remain in close and natural touch with the local battalions. As it is, a strong influence making for local patriotism is needlessly weakened.

Under reservation of these criticisms, which arise from accidental and not essential defects, there can be no doubt that school corps now have in front of them much wider and more stimulating activities. The old Cadet Corps were never very clear as to their work, nor did the quick, intelligent schoolboy find the part of a private in the ranks very interesting. But to-day the examination for Certificate A gives a standard of attainment, and demands not excessive, but serious and thorough, work, and some capacity for independent thought. It will be necessary to train each cadet of sufficient standing not only to lead a section, but to be able to command and direct a company. In an elementary way he will have to study not only drill and musketry, but attack and defence, outpost work, and guard duty. He will in any case have to attend camp at least once. There seems every chance of making the work of training of real educational value, and to the schoolmaster the interest of the whole thing is doubled. In fact, so much is this the case that we may look forward at an early date to seeing in the columns of educational journals proposals to correlate school subjects with corps-training, or *vice versâ*, and we shall witness arms and the toga in close alliance when the officers and the geography experts illuminate and assist each other.

So much is to be done that it will probably be needful to abandon in some measure the attempt to produce a considerable number of crack shots. The "Ashburton Shield" is not likely to lose its popularity, but the fact must be faced that the best shot has not of necessity learned the elements of a good officer's work, and may be quite incapable of handling a section. One of the great advantages of the new Territorial organisation is that it has done much to eliminate the pot-hunting Volunteer, who, on a minimum of scamped drills, exploited the position to his own profit. Further, as far as training in musketry is concerned, the best training that the richest school can give will offer advantages so incomparably inferior to those which may be gained from a course at Hythe, that school authorities will be well advised to recommend Hythe to the candidates for certificates, and concentrate on the rest of the work. It is to be noted that, in the report on the examination for Certificate A held in December 1908,

it is stated that "some cadets who had been to Hythe were conspicuously good." Musketry apart, it goes without saying that good drill must be insisted on, and regular practice given to all N.C.O.'s in handling their sections, and their companies on occasion, with plenty of opportunity for small independent commands. The various formations of attack and defence, the placing of outposts, advance and rearguard duties, should be practised and explained. Something of entrenchment, especially the hasty improvement of a position, and something of signalling should be taught; of the few who take interest in the latter an expert body can soon be formed. Of great importance will be work in the open field, and very much more should be made of scouting than has been made in the past. There should be more practice in judging distance, and in acquiring the intangible gift connoted by the possession of "a good eye for country." Finally, simple forms of map-drawing, combined with easy reconnaissance-work, ought to be within the capacity of most corps, consisting, as they do, of highly intelligent material.

The schools undertake this work from good motives, because they believe it likely to be of service to the country, and know it to be of service to themselves. The contingent of the Officers' Training Corps should everywhere consist of the picked boys, of whom much is expected, and whose honour is reliable; this should be known and felt throughout the school. The corps should mean discipline and self-reliance for all its members, and the work entailed will result in improved physique, quicker resolution, and all that is meant by smartness. There is no danger among schoolboys of "militarism," that strange something of which so many are afraid, and which so few define; nor are schoolmasters introducing a subtle and insidious poison into the life of the State. They are reverting to old, simple, and proved forms of education, the inculcation of patriotism and service, the provision of home-grown and not purchased power. If they keep the standards high, they will reap the reward, in their own schools, of a higher and more easily sustained "tone," readier discipline, and more implicit obedience.

C. N.

CHAPTER V

LADS' CLUBS AND THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

THE benefits conferred upon the community at large, and the working-class district in particular, by the provision of a well-managed Lads' Club are obvious enough, and the purpose of this chapter is to show not only that it is practicable for a Secondary School to maintain and conduct a club for working-lads, but that there is much to be gained by any school that undertakes such a work.

The object of a lads' club is twofold—to provide boys with opportunities for healthy enjoyment that would otherwise be beyond their reach, and to effect this in a way that enables the club officers to influence and mould their characters and develop their intelligence.

Lads' clubs vary greatly in size, and one of the largest of all, the "Hugh Oldham," connected with and supported by the Manchester Grammar School, has a membership of over 1,000 boys and young men, and an organisation that provides not only for almost every variety of indoor and outdoor games, and for the letting off of superfluous steam, but also for continuing the education of those members who are wise enough to take advantage of the opportunity, and for such forms of social activity as a dramatic society, an orchestra, parties for parents and for children who are too young to join the club, and a summer camp at the seaside.

But a thoroughly useful club for boys of from twelve to sixteen years of age may consist of two large rooms, one furnished with wooden forms, trestle-tables for chess, draughts, and similar games,[1] and a stronger table for bagatelle; and the other (called the gymnasium) with parallel bars, a horizontal bar, and, if there be space enough for the run, a vaulting-horse and spring-board. If a third and smaller

[1] Dominoes should not be introduced, as this game is generally associated with gambling.

room can be obtained for a library and reading-room, so much the better, and on certain evenings this room might be used for ping-pong. If a third room is not available, a corner of the games-room, not far from the fireplace, should be reserved for reading. A lavatory is of course indispensable.

The initial cost and the annual upkeep of a club will be whatever its managers choose to make it; and it is well to remember that efficiency and great expense do not go hand in hand, that greater enjoyment is generally to be derived from simple and inexpensive pleasures than from costly ones, and that it is good for boys and men to be forced to "make shift" at times. Circumstances vary so greatly that figures would only be misleading, but the cost of the club described, apart from the rent of rooms, lighting, heating, cleaning, and structural alterations, should not be great, the gymnastic apparatus being the most expensive item. Parallel bars, a horizontal bar with fixtures, cocoanut-fibre mats, and dumb-bells and Indian clubs for a class of a dozen boys could be procured for about £14 to £16.

It will readily be granted that such an institution would be likely to promote the happiness and well-being of the boys of the district; and it is not probable that the question of finance would be a serious obstacle. The objection that will first suggest itself will be the difficulty of finding workers to "run" the club. No schoolmaster would encourage his boys to neglect their homework in order to spend their evenings at a lads' club. The schoolboy's duty is to his school, and as a rule the only nights on which he would be free would be Fridays and Saturdays.

But, in the case of schools situated in towns, in or near to which a large proportion of the boys reside, a supply of Old Boys should be available, and their aid must be invoked. They should be associated with the masters in the management of the club, and it is to them that the working of the club must be entrusted.

To dispense with regulations is impossible, and the few simple rules that will be necessary should be consistently enforced. Threatening is bad; nagging is even worse; and equally futile is it to take notice of a misdemeanour one day and overlook it the next. The punishment should be made to fit the crime, and club officers can make allowance for high spirits, recklessness, and mischievousness, without being weak, and distinguish between the effect of these and more serious crimes. Discipline should also be maintained on the football and cricket fields, and any lad that "barges" the referee, or plays a dirty game, should be dropped from the team, how-

ever useful a player he may be. Above all, an officer must not court popularity. He will never get it in that way, and will do much harm in seeking it.

An entrance fee of a penny or twopence should be charged, in addition to the weekly subscription of a halfpenny or a penny (according to the number of evenings on which the club is open), and one of the first duties of the managers will be to find out what outdoor games the members incline towards. There will be no difficulty in raising a football team, and cricket and swimming should be strenuously encouraged. Where there is a large membership, boys will probably be found who prefer to form a harriers' club for cross-country running, and this pastime can easily be controlled. Annual sports would then follow as a matter of course. As outdoor games entail considerable expense, an extra weekly charge should be made.

Though the schoolboy's opportunities of helping in the work of the club would be restricted, his services would not necessarily be insignificant. There are many ways in which he could be useful, and a sub-committee of senior boys, presided over by one of the masters, might be formed, its object being to put to the best use the services of those boys who would be willing to give up their time on Friday or Saturday evenings and Saturday afternoons.

It must be borne in mind, however, that there is a wide gulf dividing the schoolboy of sixteen or seventeen years of age from the working-lad who left school two or three years earlier, at the age of thirteen or fourteen, to contribute as a wage-earner to the support of his family, thereby escaping, to a certain extent, from parental control. Each is inclined to regard the other with intolerant contempt. One is a "cad"—an inferior with whom it is quite impossible to be on intimate terms; the other is an overgrown baby, who is content to be sent to school like a "kid," years after the age at which a self-respecting fellow should become independent. But, though the Public School boy is, as a rule, conspicuously uncomfortable when taken out of his own element to consort with boys of another class, both can talk about games, and this is the bridge that spans the gulf. Here they stand upon common ground, and, having met and found one another decent fellows, with interests in common, each passes more freely into the other's territory. Each has much to learn from the other; and the schoolboy who is prepared to take an interest in the club, will quickly find that his less fortunate fellows possess unsuspected virtues, some of which he may copy with advantage. Boys two or

three years younger than himself will readily accept him as a friend and a guide in their games, and will be amenable to his influence and glad of his interest in them, whereas lads nearer to his own age will be more suspicious, and much more difficult of approach.

The least suspicion of "side" or condescension will be fatal; he must approach the lads as their equal. He may be the most brilliant scholar of his or any other school, and the fact will not make the slightest impression upon the members of a lads' club. He may be the captain of the fifteen, but, until his prowess has been actually witnessed and proved, it will help him little. Friendship and respect will come gradually, but, once gained, they will endure, and his influence will be the more beneficial, the less conscious he and they are of its existence. Any semblance of patronage will be promptly resented; he must not take up club work because he is desirous of conferring a benefit upon his inferiors, but because he meets there boys of like temperament to his own, in whose interests he wants to participate.

Participation in pleasures will generate sympathy better than anything else, and the interest of the most enthusiastic athletes and players of the school—particularly of the captains of games—should be enlisted on behalf of the club. Boxing and gymnastics, cross-country running, steeplechases, and long Bank-holiday tramps are all pastimes that may be enjoyed in common; scouting is susceptible of development; and the friendly rivalry of football and cricket should also help to break down the barriers that divide. It is in the outdoor games that the influence of the school should be most marked, for the standard of sportsmanship, of truth and honour, and of *esprit de corps*, is much lower among working-class lads, who leave school as soon as they enter their teens, than among Public School boys. In any game between club and school teams the style of play of the latter, their manner of accepting adverse decisions, their temper and language and sportsmanship generally, will be relentlessly criticised by their poorer opponents, who will expect a higher standard than that with which they themselves are content. The lad who admires trickery on the part of professional players, or of members of his own team, will not hesitate to condemn the same if practised by men or boys who regard themselves as his superiors. Though the club teams would probably never admit, even to themselves, that the school has the higher standard of sportsmanship, yet they will emulate—consciously or unconsciously—the virtues of their rivals; they will begin to take their

tone from them, and, before long, certain tricks will be dropped, and expressions previously regarded with indifference or approval will be taboo.

But, of all methods for removing the partition walls that divide class from class, the summer camp will be the most effective. In camp incident swiftly follows incident, and there is always something doing, something to enjoy. It is here that Tom Brown, the Public School prefect, discovers that Norman Molyneux, the labourer's boy, enjoys the things that he enjoys and dislikes what he dislikes. When next they meet at the club, the awkward corners will have been rubbed off, and the difficulty of finding topics of conversation of common interest will have disappeared.

The cost of a seven days' camp for boys of from twelve to sixteen years of age should not exceed ten shillings per head, exclusive of railway fare, but inclusive of everything else. We have known enjoyable camps that have cost considerably less than this. In the average case half the cost should be borne by the lads.

An almost inevitable development of the work will be a Sunday Bible Class, or Lads' Club Service, and as some of the schoolboys will elect to attend this, and place themselves on exactly the same footing as the club members, the spirit of comradeship will be strengthened. Some of them could be of use in other ways. One might play; another be responsible for the distribution and collection of the books; others could look up absentees.

There should also be Annual Social Evenings, one at the school, where the boys would treat their club comrades to a dramatic performance or concert, and in return the lads of the club would act as hosts and provide an entertainment or display.

That the scheme here suggested will not be free from difficulties hardly needs emphasising. There is one objection, however, that will almost certainly have to be faced—the dread of infection. An idea prevalent in the mind of the timid middle-class parent is that a large proportion of the homes of the poor are hot-beds of infectious disease; and he will strongly object to the boys of the school mixing with lads from the slums and then returning to sit next to his boy in class. This is a grave difficulty, and it may in some cases be a fatal one. If the objection can be overcome, the result should be beneficial. Conscientiously afraid, perhaps, to forbid his son to take this opportunity of doing some little good in the world, and yet oppressed by the fear of infection, the parent may begin to take a more real interest in the

homes of the poor, and in the sanitary regulations and building laws of his town.

All boys should, of course, be medically examined before being allowed to go to camp, though the danger of infection in the open air is very small.

Of all social work, this among lads is the most fascinating, and the boy who has begun to take an interest therein while at school, will be loth to drop it on leaving. And it should not be necessary—it should be very difficult—for him to do so. Success inevitably leads to extension, and one of the best means of increasing the usefulness of the club will be the addition of a Senior Department. This may take the form of a building specially designed as a lads' club, with separate floors for boys under and over seventeen years of age; but it would be better to go cautiously at first; and there is no reason why the senior club should not consist of two or three rooms in a quite separate building. Though there are disadvantages in separation, there are also obvious advantages. The extension of age should be gradual. It is better to start in a small way, with the lads who will soon be leaving school and those who have just left; but, in the course of a few years, special rooms for the lads that have grown up in the club will be a necessity.

The rooms of the senior club should be more attractively furnished, and a semi-billiard table would be the most important addition to the attractions. Senior football and cricket teams would be formed, and these should always be accompanied by an officer of the club, who could control the lads, and, if necessary, act as referee or umpire; and no lads' club can be considered a complete success unless it does something directly for the education of its members, either by forming classes in the club, or by influencing the members to take advantage of the existing Continuation Schools.

But no one who contemplates taking up lads'-club work can afford to ignore Mr. Russell's book[1] upon the subject. The author is the best known of lads'-club workers, and, as he has been assisted by experts from various clubs, his book is a perfect guide. A careful study of it will show that hardly any detail of the subject, however small, has been left unexplained.

F. P. GIBBON.

[1] *Working Lads' Clubs*, by Russell and Rigby (Macmillan, 5*s*. net).

CHAPTER VI

SCHOOL CAMPS

MANY arguments can be adduced in favour of holding a Summer Camp in connection with every type of school. By the direct contact it offers with "God's out of doors," its power of interesting in a variety of pastimes and occupations, and by its discipline in self-help and vigorous routine, it affords a unique opportunity for a variety of formative and character-moulding influences. By Secondary Day Schools the need for such an institution is especially felt, since they are as a rule of the urban type, and draw the majority of their boys from the town-classes of our population, to whom many avenues of interest and enjoyment are closed because of their environment. Moreover, such schools give longer holidays than the Elementary School, and should therefore accept a fuller responsibility for their profitable use than hitherto. In Boarding Schools conditions are different, and the holidays are generally, and rightly, claimed by parents; but they also might with advantage devote a week or fortnight in the summer to camp-life, and if their boys were thus brought into contact with day boys and boys from other schools the gain would be great. The school camp need not be restricted to one school; it serves its function best when it promotes union between boys of many types.

In this article my aim is to offer a few practical hints about the first principles of camp organisation, for the benefit of those who have not yet given the camp its proper place in their scheme for educating boys. In starting, it is best to begin in a small way, and a camp of fifty or sixty boys will be near the limit. On the other hand, for economical reasons a minimum of less than forty is not advisable. The camp to which attention is here directed will therefore be about this size, and experience shows that it will prove big enough for excellent results to be obtained.

In arranging for a camp, one of the first points for con-

sideration must be the choice of a site. The ideal situation is in a country district, near a lake, or river, or the sea, beside a farm, with a meadow adjoining for games, and, if possible, not far from a range of hills and woods. Such sites as this are not rare, and should be within reasonable distance of most of our large towns. Nor again should they be expensive. Some public authorities, like those at Conway and Hunstanton, give free permission for camping on the foreshore, and include the laying-on of water. Where a charge is made, the price should not go beyond five shillings per week for each tent, and, for this sum, water and the use of a field for games should be obtained. From the farm will come the water, milk, eggs, and vegetable supply; and, while a country district is desirable, it is at the same time a good thing not to be outside the daily call of a butcher's and baker's delivery cart.

For the "pitch" itself, shelter should be sought from the winds that are most likely to blow in squalls and gales, and care should be taken to choose a well-drained position. For this a slight incline is the best, since a low-lying pasture, however delightful in dry weather, is intolerable after rain. At the same time, the trenches on the higher side of each tent should be securely banked, so as to prevent the water, in case of rain, flooding through the flaps. Lastly, owing to the intrusion of tramps, a site within view of a high-road must be avoided. Another point of importance is to guard against the inroads of cattle; those who have experienced trouble with these animals will realise the wisdom of this precaution.

After the selection of the site, the galley-ground should be chosen. The best position for this is at the top of the slope, so that the smoke may have a free course, but, if possible, it should also, for washing purposes, be near the lake or river. The galley should consist of the store-tent (for which a "ridge" tent is the right pattern to select) and a field cooking-stove, and the whole should be fenced round with hurdles or iron fences, so as to exclude all except the quartermaster, cook, and the orderlies for each day. For cooking, a stove of the twelve-gallon size will suffice to provide for fifty boys, leaving water over for washing-up, and this, with two camp-kettles or digesters, for use with a field-oven or a simple brick fire, should serve well enough for all the cooking requirements.

After the fixing of the galley-enclosure, the tents can be pitched. The best formation, to allow space and opportunity for airing, is at a distance of between ten and fifteen feet apart, the shape of the camp taking the form of a square

with one side open. With regard to the tents themselves, the best are second-hand Army bell-tents, with an allowance of not more than six boys of various ages and sizes to each, one of whom, chosen from the older boys, will superintend all the details of tent management, and, as tent sergeant, be responsible for order, preparation for inspection, etc. In the event of illness which demands the clearing and isolation of one tent, room for the boys can then be found in the others without undue overcrowding. A point of importance, which should be carefully attended to beforehand, is to test the drinking-water and the bathing accommodation. The former should be subjected to a stringent chemical analysis, while, in the case of the latter, the site should not be definitely fixed upon until all possible knowledge has been obtained about weeds, rocks, currents, etc. Negligence in matters of this kind may easily prove disastrous.

But, before selecting the site, a still more important preliminary must be settled by the choice of a small band of keen and energetic officers. As a rule, the chief officers should be masters or Old Boys, and while at first only a small number are likely to volunteer, in time, it may be hoped, the attraction of the life and the spirit of service will induce more and more to take up such work. In camp functions and tasks are many, and at any rate no stumbling-block need be placed in the way of any one through lack of something to do. The most important office is that of quartermaster, since he is responsible for the purchase, delivery, storing, and issuing of supplies, and also for the cleanliness and sanitation of the camp. In addition to the preliminary task of estimating and ordering stores, his duties will commence with practical work two days before camp begins, when, with a small strong advance-guard, he will seize the site, in order to pitch the tents, dig latrines and trenches, set up the cooking apparatus, unpack the stores, etc. Subsequently his chief *rôle* will be in connection with the food supply, and herein his ambition in life will be so to provide as to please and satisfy, without waste or undue expense. Under his superintendence will be the camp cooking, and for a first venture a wise plan is to take an old Army cook, or commissionaire (obtainable at a charge of thirty shillings per week). In a small camp, however, the aim should be to work without paid service, and after the first year it should be possible to run the camp on an entirely independent basis, older boys who have acted as cook's assistants in the first year being delegated in subsequent camps to manage this department unaided.

To assist the cooks a staff of orderlies will be needed, and for this purpose the wisest course is to make use of the general scheme of tent organisation. Each day the members of one tent will then be drafted into the galley and made responsible for fetching milk and water, chopping wood, waiting at table, washing up after meals, peeling potatoes, scrubbing tables, etc. The advantage of utilising this unit of administration will be seen in the keen inter-tent rivalry for the clean and successful provision of the day's meals; while a further benefit will accrue in the sergeant's command over his subordinates through his previous experience of them in matters of tent discipline.

In addition to the quarter-master, an officer will be needed to manage the Excursion department. Excursions may be made one of the most valuable factors of a camp experience, and will be of two kinds. The first will take the shape of walks in afternoon and evening for botanical purposes, with the explanation of all manner of bird, animal, and plant life. Encouragement of the study of natural processes and phenomena should be given, and "talks," free from the "bookishness" of a taught subject, are likely to awaken in many a boy a permanent and lifelong interest in a hitherto unknown world. At the end of each walk the "bag" of specimens, stones, etc. should be set out as the basis of a camp museum, ultimately to be transferred to the school for future reference. The second kind of excursion will be restricted to the stronger boys. With two days' rations served, blankets on back, boots and socks greased, portable Swiss tents distributed among the more stalwart, a march will be begun in semi-military style, with a bivouac at night in the hills, the whole expedition being under the charge of one man, whose chief qualification will be skill in doctoring sore feet and providing for hungry appetites. Few who embark on a route-march of this kind regret the experience. On these longer excursions also, interest should be roused in the study of natural objects, and the observation directed to geographical and geological formations, while additional zest will be given to the march by the inclusion of some tactical scheme on the lines suggested in Major-General Baden-Powell's book, *Scouting for Boys*.

A third officer is the camp doctor, who, if possible, should be a qualified man. In camp the chief things required are simple remedies for simple ailments. Cuts, bruises, sunburn, midge-bites, and toothache (camp always finds out a weak tooth) are the most common complaints, and the chief things necessary for the ambulance-box are bandages, surgical cotton-

wool and vaseline, with simple antiseptics, toothache tincture, and liquorice powder. A qualified officer, however, is always an advantage, and, since no amount of care can completely eliminate the chance of accidents, the presence of such a one is a great relief to those in command.

Under the doctor will serve a staff of first-aiders and life-savers, who, having taken the ambulance or life-saving course at school, will now be given a chance of turning their skill to practical use. At no other time will the advantages of such training be so clear, and the point may well be pressed home. Exhibitions and practices may be arranged for work on land and in water, and a good plan is to set the older swimmers to teach the youngsters the elements of their art. A boy can learn more about swimming in a week at camp from those who know than in a whole term's visits to baths on his own account.

Last, but not least, is the officer on whom falls the duty of superintending and organising the play-time of camp. Without a regular frame-work of hours social life is impossible. There must be fixed times for *reveillé*, prayers, tent-inspection, breakfast, dinner, etc., and the proper distribution of the playing periods is equally important. Throughout, no effort should be spared to make the programme of each day a full and busy one for all. Every moment should have its allotted occupation or pursuit, and times of slackness and solitude should be reduced to an absolute minimum. With this object a scheme of inter-tent competition in cricket, football, running, swimming, should be arranged. One day may be devoted to athletic sports; another to a sail, with swimming races; a third set apart as visitors' day for parents and friends, with a cricket match against the fathers; a fourth kept for a picnic to some place of interest in the neighbourhood; while, in the intervening days, the time will be occupied in the fulfilment of the above clear and definite programme of work and play, mapped out by the games supervisor in conjunction with the commanding officer.

Such in brief outline will be the nucleus of officers required. From what has been said, also, the details of the daily routine will perhaps be fairly clear. But one part of the day, not mentioned above, deserves notice—the time between "cocoa and biscuits" and turning in. When darkness draws in, it is a good plan to get the boys round a camp-fire in the centre of the square, for a sing-song. Songs and recitations, enlivened by a chronicle of the day's doings, a mock speech by one of the older boys, or the sending up of a fire-balloon, interspersed with sallies of impromptu wit and friendly repartee,

will result in a jolly time, and will inspire comradeship as few things can.

Definite rules, of course, must always be codified to regulate camp-life, and the punishment for breaking them must be military in its certainty and rigour. All smoking and intoxicating drinks must be forbidden, and neither bathing, except at bathing parade, nor boating, except under the charge of responsible persons, allowed on any pretext. In many cases, too, it will be useful to define bounds, so as to rule out a neighbouring town. Waste of food will be looked upon as an offence against camp-law and camp-tradition.

The expense of a camp depends on the cost of equipment. This may be either hired or bought outright—the latter plan being the best, if the camp is going to be an annual affair. Apart from equipment, a charge of ten or eleven shillings per head per week should cover everything, the Army allowance of one shilling per head per day being sufficient to provide breakfast of tea or coffee, salt meat, and "squish"; dinner of hot meat and pudding; tea of bread, with butter or jam; and supper of cocoa, or Eiffel Tower lemonade, and biscuits; and the rest of the sum being used to cover cost of site—for which not more than five shillings per tent per week, with water supply, should be paid—carriage of luggage and sundry other expenses. If bought outright, a sum of £60 should suffice to provide equipment for a camp of sixty boys, and, if this permanent outlay has been made before camp is started, it should be easy to keep the charge per boy for each week between ten and eleven shillings. On the other hand, if the apparatus is hired, the cost is increased by between four and five shillings per boy. In *Working Lads' Clubs*, Chapter XV., Mr. C. E. B. Russell states that the cost of camp for 1,227 boys from the Manchester Lads' Clubs, in 1907, amounted to £1,223, or roughly to £1 a week per head. This is too large an estimate for a small economical camp of sixty boys, and fifteen shillings should be the outside limit. I base this amount on the following calculation. For sixty boys, a sum of £10 should pay for hire of tents, blankets, waterproof-sheets, pots, pans, cooking-stove, and utensils for a week. To this must be added the cost of railway carriage for the apparatus, amounting at an outside estimate to £4. Next comes a sum of £3 for cartage and straw for palliasses, and we may put £2 10*s.* as site-charge (reckoned at five shillings per tent, with water included). The food, if estimated at seven shillings per head, would amount to £21; and the whole cost totals up to £44 10*s.*, or, approximately, 14*s.* 6*d.* per boy, of which £14, or 4*s.* 8*d.* per head, is the charge for the hire of camp equipment. Care

should be taken to arrange for a reduction of railway-fare, and it is a useful practice, about six weeks before the camp is formed, to publish a Camp Circular, in which the boys are told what articles and clothes to bring with them, and are given a chance of learning beforehand the laws and duties of the life they are to lead.

In conclusion, I would express the hope that before long it will become a regular custom for a master, after a term's or year's leadership of his boys at work, to devote a week to joining them in sport and play. Soon, too, perhaps, larger institutions will be started, to which boys from any Secondary School may go—communal school camps on wider and more general lines, bringing together boys of different classes and different traditions, and promoting among all the mutual respect and liking that result from intercourse in the vigorous and genial atmosphere of camp-life.

One thing is certain, that the usefulness for many things of an early camp-training is growing each year. Each year the camp system for poor boys, lads' clubs, and the like is being extended, and each year the cry for helpers in this branch of philanthropic effort becomes louder. Many parents who will never permit their boys to enter a building for fear of infection will allow them to go and help in an outdoor camp under due medical inspection and control. One of the fruits of the application of the camp idea to Higher Schools should in the future be seen in an increased interest in social and philanthropic service on the part of England's boys and younger manhood.

The following books will afford useful information for camping purposes:

Boys' Brigade Handbook, obtainable at their office in Buchanan Street, Glasgow.

Working Lads' Clubs (Chapter XV.), by C. E. B. Russell and Lilian Rigby.

Scouting for Boys, by Major-General Baden-Powell.

School World, July, 1906; article by J. L. Paton, M.A., High Master of the Manchester Grammar School.

S. B. HARTLEY.

CHAPTER VII

SCHOOL EXCURSIONS

IF the secret of education is to draw out and train a boy's potential capacities, to encourage his useful activity in every possible direction, to bring him into living touch with man and Nature, to give him the insight that comes of sympathy, the vital knowledge that comes of personal observation at first hand, above all, to fire his enthusiasm for seeing things on his way through life with his own eyes, and helping men and causes with his own arm and brain, then it is undeniable that school excursions or expeditions offer an instrument of the highest educational value, and one that the school of the future will do well to use for all it is worth. Boys and masters are, in spite of orthodox Public School traditions, happily not all cast in the same mould. Many are incapable of getting any good out of standard games beyond the discipline of energy and self-subordination, and the health which they afford; and a few are physically unable to play some games at all, through failure of eye or heart. For such boys, regular, and, for our doughtiest athletes, occasional, excursions should be organised in every school, and they have also the enormous advantage of giving the non-athletic master his one chance of participating in the out-of-door activities which, more than anything, link master and boys together with a bond of good-fellowship unbreakable by rod or imposition Moreover, what is called the progress of civilisation, in many ways inimical to hardihood and courage, has been of benefit to boys in making excursions possible to an extent undreamt of by their fathers. Their expeditions and interests are no longer bounded by a radius of five miles; by train and bicycle they can enter into the glorious heritage of the open road and the far hillside, can drink tea in the old-world village twenty miles away, or feel the spell of Early Perpendicular in the cathedral of a distant valley, without being late for the delights of evening work or the duty of supper. The

love of travel and the passion for novelty and change, inbred in every proper boy, can thus be wholesomely gratified and turned to account. And it is good in spring to see the wood carpeted with bluebells, the field a golden blaze with buttercups, to hear the lark and smell the bean-flower, as you swing along with fellow-cyclists, ten or twenty strong, work behind and a never-ending afternoon ahead! Even apart from the quest of stone, or flower, or church which prompts the expedition, who would not grant that it is wise, as an end in itself, to fill keen young eyes and ears with sights and sounds like these; to set, so easily, young limbs aglow and exhilarate with health and pleasure?

Every school, then, will, for all these reasons, encourage excursions. In many boarding schools they are organised only in connection with the Natural History Society, and restricted to its members. No limitation, we are convinced, is less defensible. It is excellent that there should be a Natural History Society, and altogether admirable that it should fill the School Museum with specimens collected by its devotees on expeditions botanical, geological, zoological, ornithological, entomological, and all the rest of it. To discover the rare orchid and "collect" the brilliant butterfly, to know something of the customs of the many tribes of trees, to distinguish birds and respect their nests (save for the "just one egg"), to load the pockets with stones and fossils, won with toil and musty with antediluvian secrets—all this is at once delightful and instructive for the boy, educational in the best sense of the word, the only proper basis of effective Nature study in the class-room, and long may it flourish! But there are boys other than natural historians, other studies than that of Nature, and, whether officially taught or catalogued as "tastes," these, too, require the stimulus that can best be given by the excursion. Geography, as interpreted by the reformers of to-day, is a "live" subject, connecting up with physiography and meteorology on the one side and history on the other. Its students have equal need of standing upon a hill-top, and seeing the principles which govern the natural formation and human conquest of the earth's surface illustrated by the panorama of stream and valley, road and hamlet, moor and meadow, tunnel and canal; and to many a boy a map first becomes a reality when it delineates for him on a large scale the district he has visited on foot or bicycle. To an even greater extent, history and the tributary "hobbies" archæology and architecture, which transmute old bones and stones into its life-blood, depend upon a complete and systematic course of expeditions to castles, Roman camps,

battlefields, museums, and those venerable churches and ancient mansions wherein England is peculiarly rich. The keen historian can open a thousand vistas which allure to reading, by seizing the suggestions that the name of a village or a street, the sign over a shop door, a phrase of the vernacular, the coat-of-arms on a tomb, shower upon him as the trip proceeds. If he has the gift of terse and vivid description, is allusive rather than didactic, a seeming fellow-inquirer rather than a teacher, his boys will listen gladly and remember what he says, and Cæsar's camps and the Civil War will never again seem dull to them when up in form. The spell of history is only acknowledged by doubting Tom and Jack when eye has seen and finger touched her concrete illustrations, just as the real inwardness of Catholicism is first apprehended when, in the sunless Breton marshes, you are confronted with a poor, gaunt Calvary inscribed, "O CRUX AVE, SPES UNICA!"

Perhaps, however, the greatest benefit, if we except love of Nature and a quickened power of observation, that excursions can confer, is the stimulus they give to local patriotism by securing a first-hand knowledge of local history through the antiquities and "monuments" of the district. Some buildings or sites of historical importance are within the reach of every school; even if it lies in the heart of the country, it can learn the part its district played in the dim deeds of long ago, identify their scene, and sift out what is true in local legend. In England, too, a town is never far away, and its interest is often in inverse proportion to its present size. But the day school is likely to be placed in a neighbourhood where the appeal to patriotism is made by its to-day even more than by its yesterday, and, if such be the case, it will take care to show its boys the docks and the Exchange, as well as the Cathedral and the city-wall. In London, of course, the choice of goal is infinite, and infinite the instruction our young historians can gain by spending sixpence and an afternoon. But it is hard to love a suburb or an urban county, and the civic spirit will spring more readily in the breasts of boys whose town is big enough to boast a picture-gallery and small enough to let them escape quickly into the unspoilt country. Such boys, by excursions, will explore both humanity and Nature with equal ease. The London school will visit monuments in wet or wintry weather, but will seize every available moment of the summer to arrange an expedition into fresh air and rural sights and sounds. The object will always be to widen the boy's mind and open his heart by knocking down the barriers which prevent him knowing something of all sorts and con-

ditions of men, in the present as well as in the past. The excursion will civilise, not merely educate.

Of recent years many German schools have developed the day's expedition into an extended educational tour, lasting from two to fourteen days, and giving the boys an insight into many different aspects of the region visited. The point to notice is that the young tourists are carefully prepared in advance to take full advantage of their journey, by devoting a few hours weekly during the previous month to the study of the geography and history of the district, its plant and animal life, the grouping of the inhabitants, their work and industries. Especially in Jena and Middle Germany the scheme of excursions has been so elaborated that in many schools all boys, from the age of eight onwards, visit, in small groups, a different part of the country every year, under the guidance of one or two masters and generally a *Seminar* student. An account of such a journey, undertaken by fifteen little fellows eight years old, is given by Miss Catherine Dodd in *The National Review* for November 1897. Those who read her article will appreciate the utility of such an expedition, while lamenting the excessive zeal which permitted tender children to be actively occupied for seventeen hours out of the twenty-four; and all who know German life will be impressed with the keenness and delight the boys take in such travel, with their cheerful endurance of fatigue, the firm but friendly control of the masters, the kindness and hospitality which the wanderers encounter on every side. More ambitious still are the journeys of schoolboys into foreign countries, such as last year's tour of Salford boys to France and the visit which, as we write, the youths of a Hungarian higher school are paying to London and other capitals. Such a combination of instruction and pleasure makes an ideal way of spending a holiday, and might well be used to stimulate interest in modern languages. The several highly successful attempts that have been made in England to organise school journeys on the more modest lines of home travel, are described in detail by Mr. J. E. G. Montmorency in his monograph on *School Excursions and Vacation Schools*, published by the Board of Education as Volume XXI. of Special Reports. The secret of making all go well is, by careful preparation and arrangement, to eliminate, as far as may be, the element of chance. For this reason many prefer a series of day-excursions from a fixed centre (which would, we think, ideally be a summer camp) rather than a walking tour, with its nightly change of lodging and the possible difficulty of nursing a sick boy.

For excursions in general, and the normal day-excursion in particular—though in special cases help must be given—it is a sound principle to encourage boys to save up for the necessary expenses, that their appetite may be diverted to higher pleasures than the tuck-shop. The master who leads should estimate the cost in advance, and keep it down by getting a reduction of railway fare for his party. If tea is taken at an inn, a previous postcard, announcing the visit and fixing the price, will prevent delay and extortion; but the better way is to carry one's provisions in the pocket, and eat them on river-bank or moorland. It is important that each party should, except on rare occasions, number under rather than over twenty, and that all boys should wear the school colours, and be scrupulous, in their behaviour, to illustrate, not tarnish, their school's good name and fame. Every expedition should be thoughtfully adapted to the age and strength of the boys, who should never return from it fagged out, but with a freshened brain and a body healthily tired. All excursions, from the scientific explorations of the erudite geologists to the unassuming form-picnic given by a master as a reward for good work, will not only delight and inspire in the making, but, through the energies of their photographic members and a lantern-lecture on a wet winter's afternoon, can amuse and instruct even in the retrospect. Every master who has led such journeys will remember hospitable receptions of dust-stained travellers by kindly friends and parents, and will testify to the good-humour, receptivity, and eager gratitude which his fellow-wanderers never fail to show. The excursion, we would say in conclusion, is needed by the dull boy or the sombre most of all. Like the workshop, it takes him out of himself, and, by exciting his interest, rehabilitates his self-respect or dissipates his gloom. Therefore, let us all turn our faces towards the open road, and go cheerily in quest of the gay and sane philosophy it teaches, laughing from sheer joy of life as we flash past the twentieth milestone!

CHAPTER VIII

SCHOOL SOCIETIES

THE aim of an English school is to give boys strong and supple bodies, clear and informed brains, loyal and kindly hearts. It is all this, and it is something more; it must, the less officially the better, develop those tastes and capacities which will in the future help them to spend their leisure profitably to themselves and to their fellows; it must provide healthy and varied interests for the hours in which, the day's work over and the day's exercise secured, the youth in lodgings in a strange town will only escape boredom and mischief by being trained to turn to some pursuit for which he, as a boy, acquired an aptitude and liking, and by which, in nine cases out of ten, he is brought into friendly contact with brother enthusiasts. Luckily, the school has perfected during the last century an ideal instrument to attain this object, in the shape of the different societies which flourish in proportion to its general success, and which, under many names and forms, provide scope for self-activity and self-improvement among the boys, a genial bond between boys and masters, a preparation for the outer world, and, best of all, an encouragement to the disinterested co-operation so instinctive to the tribal animal, the boy, and so lamentably rare a feature to-day of Aristotle's "social animal," the adult man. As adequately as games, the school society protests against individualism and pleads for mutual help and union. By the common interest of "bug-hunting" or music the athlete and the delicate scholar can get to know, and like, and complete, each other, and the school gains in oneness of spirit and richness of life. The number of societies, other than games clubs, which the school possesses will depend upon its size. In a very large school all those we shall mention below will be found; whereas a small school will do well, in spite of loss of breadth, to ensure vitality by concentrating its interests upon a few vigorous institutions. It is true that

voluntary enterprise in any direction merits support; but a membership of ten makes a set, not a society, and nothing disperses energy and divides a community more than sets. When the Natural History Society outrivals the green bay-tree in growth, then may photographers claim *droit de cité* and full Roman privilege; when it is weak, and the mere shadow of a mighty name, they will serve the State better by joining and reviving a useful association which exists, than by forming a coterie that has no prospect of expanding into a club. Boys should be unselfish even in their hobbies. With this proviso, the more societies the merrier, if all have room to thrive; we cannot, in such a case, discover too many wholesome "tastes," or organise too many clubs to feed and educate them.

Turning to consider the societies themselves and their particular utilities, we shall naturally assign the first place to the Debating Society, which, though it can rarely boast the historical celebrity of "Pop" at Eton, in most schools has established a tradition and acquired the dignity of years and honour. As a rule it confines its membership to the top forms, and in some schools is the close preserve of the Classical Sixth, the Modern seniors grouping themselves in a Philosophical Society, said to debate on smells and spooks rather than votes and empires; and the two associations only come together when they raid each other's meetings. But this border warfare and aloofness is happily the exception, the Debating Society generally opening its doors to Elect and Philistine alike, be they but senior, and gaining thereby in vigour what it may lose in grace. The miniature Parliament, with its President as Speaker and its pompous Clerk, meets, for the most part, weekly, or, if two hebdomadal councils are impossible, since Literary and Debating Societies have almost always the same boys as members, each takes its turn of assembly, and Rhetoric and Letters are honoured in rotation. If taken seriously, not solemnly, the advantages of a flourishing School Senate can hardly be exaggerated. Not only can every subject of general or special interest be discussed, from Socialism to Female Suffrage, from Cosmopolitanism to Corporal Punishment, from India to Aeroplanes, and the wide and intelligent reading of newspapers and reviews prospectively and resultantly encouraged, but, by beginning to speak and to think on his feet before his fellows, a boy is given a chance of gaining the clear and effective self-expression so rare in English, as compared with Continental, youth, and only lately cultivated among us by "active methods" and better English teaching in the class-room.

Terse and telling speech, and freedom from pedantry and nervousness, are two of the best qualities which a boy who is to be a leader (and we want all our boys to lead) can acquire ; the intimacy of the School Debating Society, which banishes awe and chokes off wordiness, is a unique sphere for their acquisition, and one possessing these talents has before him the open and attractive career of the Union at the University and perhaps of Parliament beyond, or at least of public service on the local platform and in the Town or County Council. Hence the wisdom of the rule that all members must speak a certain number of times or be excluded, and hence the utility of Private Business, if only it be kept within due limits of time and decorum, since, for the timid novice, a question then "brought before the notice of the House" is the easiest preface to the formal maiden speech. It is important that some masters regularly, and many occasionally, should attend the debates. The boys are grateful and stimulated, the discussion is brought to a higher level through their maturer judgment and wider knowledge, and it is excellent that the Olympian should be for a while on the floor among the boys and under the strict rule of a boy-president on the platform ; like Mr. Bultitude, he may learn many things. One point and one appeal we wish especially to emphasise. If debating societies are so good for the Sixth, they are also good for the rest of the school, for the many boys who will never reach the heights, but are all the more in need of awakened interests and ready tongues. Wherever an Upper School and a Junior Debating Society have been instituted, they have thriven splendidly, and often put *the* Debating Society to shame, so keen and constant are their members ; while the ability which quite young boys often show in speaking and marshalling their points, after twelve months' practice, would surprise a chance observer. Here, of course, a master's help and sympathetic guidance are imperative, though he must veil his leadership by sitting in a back row rather than in the chair : [1] the boys must be trained not only to speak, but to run their own society.

Of equal usefulness and nearly equal dignity will be the Literary Society, which again, by tradition, is a monopoly of the head boys, though, as we shall try to show, the culture that such an association affords should be made general throughout the school. Of the Literary Society the President

[1] It is by no means a bad thing if a master is occasionally elected President by the free choice of boys ; if he has tact, the relations will be very cordial. Only he must be elected rarely, and *qud* ordinary member only.

is the shadow, the Secretary the ever-busy reality, since upon him, in collaboration with the Sixth Form Tutor, falls the task of arranging the session's programme, of distributing parts when a play is read, of persuading the hard-worked master, and forcing the unwilling boy, to write a paper for discussion in solemn conclave. In most schools one of two alternatives is preferred, and the society meets either to read together plays and poets, or to hear and discuss an essay treating of a set literary subject, the choice of which is usually left to the author. We are of opinion that the ideal is rather a variation between both forms of grace, that it is equally good to read a play of Shakespeare (if the parts are properly "got up" beforehand, and an informal criticism and explanation of the matter read is considered more indispensable than "getting through" *Henry V.* in a dreary gabble of two sittings), and to devote a meeting to introducing Pater or Meredith or Swinburne to boys who know him not, by telling the story of his life, and giving rather extracts from his writings than erudite delineation of their virtues and defects. In a boarding school, however, it is easy to supplement a society which confines itself to reading the drama (and for Sixth Form boys the drama should mean not only Shakespeare, but Sheridan, Goldsmith, Shaw, and Ibsen), and which meets, say, on Saturday night, by another society which writes papers on different authors, and talks about them some evening after prayers when preparation-work is lightest; and it is a good plan, also, for such a gathering to take up a book like the Selection of Browning's Poems, or a subject like the English Sonnet, for a half-term's regular course of study. For the Fifths yet another society, with a wide and interesting programme, should be formed, and, if possible, the Middle and Lower Schools should have voluntary associations for reading and discussing books suitable to the age and taste of their members. "Houses" in boarding schools often collect their boys in literary circles, and the new day school "houses" could, other means of union failing, easily follow their example; while the individual master is always able, at every school, to announce that he will be "at home" at such and such a time weekly to all boys, young and old, who care to attend a "reading circle," whether they can come regularly or not. Indeed, apart from the senior society (in which masters should co-operate with boys by contributing papers, and can, if they have the art themselves, do much to teach them how to read aloud), it is likely that every literary society will be most effective if put in the charge of one master, who will be well advised to receive the boys in his

own rooms as friends, offer them cake and coffee, and give them the easiest chairs. He will, above all things, avoid selecting an author beyond the capacity of those he is trying to interest, and will see that each boy reads aloud in turn, chooses in turn a favourite poem, taken from anywhere, to offer to the appreciation of the club, and is given in every way a sense of happy and useful membership. If these circles are to fulfil such conditions, they must be small; in big day schools, where the boys scatter to the four corners of the town or county, the difficulty of organising them is much greater, but a library or board-room can usually be made available and homely, even without the attraction of tea. The will can certainly discover the way; it is well worth finding, since experience proves that by such agencies even young boys of twelve and fourteen can be brought to delight in good literature and to read aloud intelligently. If it is said that all this does double duty with the class-room, we reply that the teaching of English in this country is as yet quite ineffective, and that even when it improves we cannot have too much of a good thing. Much the same informal stimulus can, for older and more advanced boys, be usefully applied to the study of History and Modern Languages; the mind can often be roused to enthusiasm in an atmosphere of freedom, self-activity and comfort, after remaining indifferent to the best teaching up in form. Finally, if reading aloud, with proper articulation and expression, has become general among big and little boys alike, the task of the master entrusted with the management of the school play, whether it be Greek, Latin, French, or English, will be enormously lightened. He will have a wide field to select from, and get his actors already more than half-trained; he will then have no cause to regret the non-existence of a regular Dramatic Society, an institution for many reasons undesirable in schools.

The Natural History Society, or Field Club, will burst into its full glory in the summer, when the Debating and Literary Societies are resting, to a greater or less extent, from their winter's labour. Its task will be to impart system and method to the zeal of young collectors, to arrange, if possible, that its members shall be given some first-hand acquaintance with many provinces of Nature and a special intimacy with one, to plan expeditions that shall cultivate various scientific tastes in turn if not concurrently, to encourage its boys to enrich the School Museum before perfecting their own collections. The Photographic Society will usefully co-operate in preparing lantern-slides for Natural History lectures, and its members should endeavour to beautify the corridors

and class-rooms with specimens of first-class work. Both societies can teach boys helpfulness to the school and to each other, as well as furnish them with healthy pleasure. Both have the great advantage of taking their devotees into the open air by organised excursions, a branch of school activity which is considered under a special heading in this book.

The Glee and Orchestral Societies will be the means by which the musical talent of the school can find and express itself. As a rule the voices of all boys are tested for the choir, and those boys and masters who can sing or play greatly enrich the corporate life by forming themselves into a club for the practice of other than "religious" music, and giving concerts both on their own invitation and at the Conversazione. At Radley, where music is a special feature, an annual competition is held between the quartets of different "Socials," as Houses there are called. The prize is a cup, and nothing could be more striking than the trouble taken in rehearsal by both boys and coaches, or than the excellence of some of the results obtained. In a boarding school especially, where boys are cut off from any other chance of hearing and learning music, the choir and orchestra, and the Saturday concert are a prime necessity, and we hope that the time will come when all schools will devote an hour a week to singing *together*, nightingales and corncrakes both, those school songs and spirited old ballads of which we in England have so splendid a collection.

Other societies we have only space to name, such as the Chess and Draughts Club, so useful in providing matches with other schools and with the Lads' Club; the Branches of the Scripture Union and Navy League, which begin to be found in our public schools; the new Society of Crusaders, which unites on Sundays the Higher School boys of a district to inculcate the duty of chivalrous service of God and man. The difficulty is to arrange times for meeting which neither clash with work or games, nor yet trespass on that margin of unclaimed leisure which should be wider than it often is to-day. In residential schools the difficulty is not felt; that in day schools it is not insuperable is proved by the Manchester Grammar School, where almost all the societies we have mentioned flourish, without either play or preparation being found to suffer. An hour, especially in the winter, when afternoon-school is over, and Saturday night all through the year, are generally available and will suffice. And we take this opportunity of respectfully recommending the sacrifice of another occasional hour to yet one more form of society, not of boys this time, but of masters, not

necessarily in, but nevertheless for, the school—the Society of masters who teach French or German, and who can best make the teaching of the school effective if the language they profess becomes a regular medium of intercourse and good-fellowship among themselves.

Such, briefly, are the societies which are found to-day in English schools. The masters who devote themselves to their success find an adequate reward in the knowledge that by them the boys' minds are healthily occupied and actively developed. The boys, when they become men, still catch themselves dreaming of a Debating Society picnic or a Literary Society dinner, even if they have quite forgotten the amendments which they were once so proud to carry, or the authors whom they dissected with so merciless a pen. For whatever else a society may give its members, it gives them comradeship, and, equally with the playing-field, promotes that spirit of unselfish interest which both humanises eminence and helps the foot to trudge more cheerily along the level road.

CHAPTER IX

OLD BOYS' SOCIETIES

EVERY school worthy of the name, that has a living soul of its own, and is not merely born, like a thousand others, of an Act of Parliament, to be the creature of a code, will bind its Old Boys together by bonds as compelling as they are intangible; and its Old Boys' Society will stand for proof that it was guided in days past by men who did their life's work in it for the realisation of an individual ideal. But it matters little whether the school was efficient or inefficient in its teaching and its discipline, prosperous or unprosperous, of high or low repute; the Old Boys' memories cast a grace over its ugliest places and a tender light on its darkness. Those were the days of "free hearts, free foreheads," which the sun in its courses will not bring back. And, if the school was of size and rank to give the higher education which trains men to do God service in Church and State, infallibly that feeling for the past will draw its children together to honour the "Alma Mater" year by year, to enjoy the pleasure and the pathos of retrospect, and to recapture once again, if only in memory and, it may be, imagination, for a moment, the fine carelessness of boyhood.

We bear the burden of world-wide empire, and a few years sees the members of a single form scattered under every climate over all the continents. It is still more rare than it was in Lamb's day "to find the same arm linked in yours at forty, which at thirteen helped it to turn over the *Cicero, De Amicitia,* or some tale of Antique Friendship, which the young heart even then was burning to anticipate." Yet from this separation has been born the strong yearning to meet again, and the first Old Boys' Societies were formed to give the desired opportunity of reunion. But out of that much has followed, and it has been thought well to devote a brief section of this book to the subject, because Old Boys' Societies

may play so great and so helpful a part in the fortunes of their school.

It is certain that, in whatever other respects such societies may differ, in one their practice is of absolute uniformity: they dine. There is no need to dwell either on the necessity or on the merits of this national and natural procedure. It enables men to meet, when for a few hours they are given a loose from their business, and when all conspires to cast a rosy light. It gives a chance to honour great memories, and to recall the half-forgotten; above all, it is a time when the present school can speak to the past in a more living way than through the pages of the School Magazine. It provides the permanence amidst change, the unity amidst succession, that marks the impressiveness of the life of a school, which endures for the centuries, while its children pass away in their generation. For the non-local public schools this dinner, and some recognised day in the school-year when Old Boys are welcomed back to their old "house," must of necessity be the only opportunities when there can be collective celebration of the bond that connects them. By this means the school, and the claims of the school, are regularly brought to their minds; and, in turn, they form an organisation which, chiefly in three ways, can work for the good of the foundation.

The first and most obvious way in which Old Boys can help their school is by entering their own sons on its lists, and by using their influence with others to follow their example. Every great school has its individuality, or should have: it is a pity that in these days the individuality is not so marked as it used to be. It is not so easy as it was to distinguish the product of Rugby from that of Winchester, or the Etonian from the Harrovian; and it is no dead level of excellence that is being reached, but a dead level of uniformity. In part that is the cause, and in part it is the effect of the nonchalance with which the British parent, often himself an old Public School man, sends one son to Marlborough, another to Cheltenham, and a third to Clifton, with the feeling that the expense and the result in each case will be about the same, and that a man learns to be a gentleman at any of them. It is, at any rate, possible that membership of an Old Boys' Society would save a father from such unnecessary cosmopolitanism. In other cases it might save him from the snobbery of rejecting the good local school at which he was himself educated, in favour of some possibly second-rate boarding school, which endeavours to stamp its pupils with the public school status. There are still, however, plenty of families which closely identify themselves with the

schools which they have made their own, and which have made them. Let us hope that Old Boys' Societies will create more of them.

In a second way these societies can help the school, by suggesting and by encouraging corporate and individual beneficence. Of this instances enough will occur to any reader, but they are not so common as they might be. The individual benefactor may or may not be inspired by the society, though it should be the society's part to see that he receives his due meed of honour. But the Old Boys can set the example themselves, to an even greater extent than has yet been followed, by gifts which are the fruit of the subscriptions of all. A library, a gymnasium, a pavilion, and, in the case of rich schools, gifts more ambitious than these, may well come within their means; and there are no gifts which so hearten those who administer the school and so encourage the boys of whom it consists. Or, again—and it is a matter in which Old Boys are seldom found to be niggardly—they can relieve the need of old school-servants, or make it clear to masters of long service that they have not altogether wasted their labours, nor utterly ploughed the sands.

Thirdly, they can render service because they form a body of opinion, and, in a society, an organised body of opinion, which the directors of school policy will wish to consult, if they are wise, and to which they will endeavour to defer. It generally happens that the Headmaster is not himself an Old Boy of the school which he rules, and it may be to him a source of guidance and support to be able to appeal to those to whom its traditions should be an instinct. Of the three types of service so far spoken of, this is indeed the least costly, but by far the most difficult; for to bring Old Boys' opinion into vital relation with the governing of the school needs great tact on all sides. Nevertheless, schools have been ruined for a generation because the Headmaster has been blind to the position, and the opinion that might have guided him aright at a critical moment has been incapable of expression or of consultation, because it was unorganised. The duty of societies is to watch, to speak when asked, and in certain cases, of which they must judge, to venture a remonstrance: but it is not their duty to attempt to direct the policy of a school, to dictate the action of the Governors, to run candidates for the Headmastership, or to inspire the Headmaster in all that he does, when he is placed in authority and set to run his race.

The Old Boys of local schools, such as the large day schools of the great provincial towns, have, by the circumstances

of the case, a greater opportunity for continuous and effective work. It is true that in their case, also, the calls and chances of later life will lead to wide separation; but the bulk of them will still, in their maturity, be found doing their work almost within the shadow of the old walls. They need not be content with one or two dinners a year, but can form a club in which they can still continue to meet with something of the old freedom. Their knowledge of the school will be greater, their visits more frequent, and their opinion more valuable. They should form the school's main support, making it known in every circle to which it appeals, and being themselves the living examples of its training. It is surely the noblest educational ideal, that the future citizens of a great city should be trained within its boundaries and grow up from boyhood with the flame of local patriotism burning clearly and steadily within them. But in the latter half of the nineteenth century there has been a great tendency for the more well-to-do to send their children to non-local schools, to the manifest detriment of the great day schools of the provinces, and a caste division has crept into education, for which we shall surely pay the price. In the towns the result has been that the older citizens, who were content to serve their city to the utmost of their power and their means, are gradually passing away, but their places are not being taken. Their sons are pleasant in society and on the playing-field, but they are apt to slight their birthplace, and they are not conspicuous for self-sacrifice. The complaint is universal that there are few recruits for the Town Council and for municipal and public offices of trust. The cause is not far to seek, and we would have every Old Boys' Society of a local school lift its voice continually against this foolish practice of educating those who, by position, should come to be the leaders of their community, in places and surroundings where they must, in their most impressionable years, remain untouched by the thousand local traditions which should form their character.

There is no need to speak of the inner constitution of these societies, since every combination will settle its own form, and the type will in any case be much the same. One danger, or rather one weakness, often shows itself in an inability to attract and to retain those who have just left school. The annual dinner may often see a magnate in the chair, burdened with years and honours of Church or State, and proposers of toasts who, if each of them is not "*laudator temporis acti se puero*," at any rate necessarily confine their reminiscences to a period when their hearers of twenty or thirty were either unborn or innocent babes. To such, these

speeches fail to prove attractive, nor do the sedentary pleasures of the epicure often appeal to the restless vigour of youth. It is well to see that at all dinners every one may have a chance of hearing some one speak who is near his own time. It is better, if the society can organise and maintain an athletic club for its younger members. Such clubs are admirable, and it is a pity that they show so strong a preference for confining themselves to the football-field to the exclusion of other games. Such teams as the Old Marlburians, Old Merchant Taylors, Old Leysians, Old Carthusians, do much more than preserve a fine type of amateur football in days when the amateur of the true type grows ever rarer. They bind together their members in years when, at the first facing of life, they drift most rapidly and most easily apart, and they often form the strongest link of the society. If such clubs exist, it is at any rate a proof that the school feeling is strong, and among such Old Boys there are likely to be fewer instances of that perverse spirit of adolescent manhood, too frequently seen, which leads the public-school man, on reaching the University, to cut all his former schoolfellows. There are some to whom the spirit of that subaltern who fell in the front ranks of battle with "*Floreat Etona!*" on his lips seems, amid the wider traditions and appeals of such a scene, strangely parochial and exclusive. But it is not really so. We grow from small beginnings to the greater issues, and he in whom the love of home and school burns most purely and most intensely makes ever the finest patriot.

CHAPTER X

THE SCHOOL MAGAZINE

THE Boy Editor of a school magazine feels himself to be a person of some importance at certain periods in the school year. But when he receives a communication from the Librarian of Bodley's Library, Oxford, reminding him that by Act of Parliament this institution is entitled to receive a copy of every publication in the United Kingdom, then the boy editor's breast begins to swell with real pride. His pages are clearly of interest and importance. They are not what they have so often been abusively called—dull, trivial, and ephemeral. Oxford, nay, England itself, demands to be supplied with a copy.

In course of time the editor learns to look upon this invitation with more indifference, and, when he has passed on his responsibilities to other and younger hands, he begins himself to doubt whether now, at any rate, the abuse of the old school magazine is not justified. Certain it is that to the outside public the school magazine does appear dull, trivial, and ephemeral. Of what possible interest is a column of names followed by figures and decimal points, entitled "Batting Averages"? how can it matter that "Smith, H. J., has received his Second cap"? and who will care to know a year hence that "Jones failed at the place-kick"?

Such is the criticism of the ignorant and uninitiated.

It must, however, be at once admitted that the school magazine is a very special type of literature or journalism. It is not intended to interest anybody outside a certain rather narrow circle. Bodley's Librarian may read it if he has time and inclination, but, unless his own name once appeared among its columns, it is at least doubtful whether he will regard it as anything but necessary lumber.

The real object of the School Magazine, as far as its readers are concerned, is to be a chronicle of the doings of the school and its members, present and past. If it is this, it will be of

interest to all boys in the school who are fit and worthy members, and it will serve as a very valuable link in the chain that binds Old Boys of the school to the community which, in every sense but that of sentiment, they have left. In the school there will always be found boys who take no interest in the school magazine, and it will generally be found that these persons take no interest in the games or other parts of the corporate life of the school. Schoolboy and schoolmaster have long since classified such boys as "rotters," and with justice; the school must be a community, and in any community the supercilious drone is a possible source of "sour brood." To the rest of the school the pages of the magazine are of interest. All boys love to see their names in print. Whether they are singular in this is not of importance for our purposes. Nor is the question to be put seriously that was once addressed by a youthfully priggish editor to the writer of these lines, "But is it good for them, sir?" It is unlikely that this ambition to see his name in print will ever prove the real or only stimulus to a boy to exert himself in school work or games. The desire is human and harmless, so long as the magazine is properly conducted. Of course, the big school matches will always be reported in greater detail, but there is no reason why house-captains and captains of junior teams should not have a few lines allotted them, in which they can judiciously distribute praise and occasional censure. Sixth Form Debating and other societies will demand a fairly full report of their proceedings, but there is no reason why, when Robinson minimus has presented a cuckoo's egg of his own finding to the museum, this fact also should not be chronicled in the magazine. Robinson will be no less keen a naturalist for it, and will certainly feel more strongly his membership of the community. And it is hardly necessary to insist that all distinctions gained in school work, from University Scholarships down to Lower School Literature Prizes, shall be alike mentioned in the School Chronicle.

But the achievements of Old Boys should also be recorded. If this column is wisely used the magazine gains a great and additional value. Achievements, however, must not be supposed to be synonymous with University distinctions. The latter will, of course, be recorded; but, if the editorial gaze can be made to scan all walks of life and all ages of men, the magazine will help to bind a numerous and powerful band of allies to the side of the school. And another equally profitable end will be served. The present members of the school will perceive that Army, Navy, and 'Varsity are not everything in the world, that they can serve their country as well in Parlia-

ment or County Council as in the Army, and can serve Society by disinterested good work, scientific, literary, or philanthropic.

The question then arises, is the school magazine to be nothing but a chronicle of events? A chronicle may be dull, even to those most nearly concerned, unless some attention is paid to style, and if events are merely recorded and never criticised. Criticism is of course inevitable in the ordinary report. But there may be more than this. Reviews of the term and season, editorials containing reviews of the year, are a valuable site for such criticism. Verse, humorous or satirical, offers an excellent opportunity for the sly dig and the good-humoured quip.

But, even with all these, there are sure to be times when the distracted editor will be racking his brains to know how to fill a blank page or two at the eleventh hour. Then is the time for him to turn to the drawer in which he keeps his "Sundry Contributions." It may be that the school does contain an infant of literary genius whose work it is wise to put into print. But an experience of a good many years of editing does not leave the writer very sanguine. Even genius in its infancy is apt to be very dull.

There still remains another resource to be considered—the correspondence. How much of the so-called "Correspondence" and "Answers to Correspondents" in school magazines is genuine? It is a great temptation to an editor wanting copy to invent grievances and to air them over the pseudonyms of Reformer, "Pro bono publico," and the like. It gives his paper the appearance of representing public opinion, and enables him to air private opinions behind a veil of apparent modesty. In practice, nevertheless, there can be little doubt that anonymous correspondence is to be discouraged as much at school as in after life. There, too, it is a form of cowardice. If the grievance is real and legitimate, the boy should be made to avoid this false modesty and stand prepared to defend his own opinions.

We seem to have discussed the desired end in sufficient detail. It remains to consider how the end is to be reached. The great question is, should the paper be run entirely by the boys, entirely by the masters, or should a mean be struck? School magazines are, or have been, managed on each of these plans. The writer of these lines has known a school magazine which was regularly written from cover to cover by a master. It happened to be well done, but might with equal likelihood have been badly conceived or executed. In either case the main objection to this kind of editing is obvious.

Every department of the school and its work should be educative. Editing and all that it entails can teach a boy much that is valuable; punctuality, tact, and patience are only three of the more obvious lessons that can be learned from it.

Why then should not the school magazine be run entirely by the boys without aid or supervision? More than one school chronicle is so run, and apparently with success. But a boy editor's tact is at best not fully developed. He may make mistakes; he probably has prejudices. Left to himself he is apt to criticise in a way that will give offence, perhaps to boys, perhaps even to masters, but more probably to parents or Old Boys. The danger is real; it has been known to prove grievous. The best way of avoiding it is to let an experienced master co-operate as treasurer, censor, or what not. It will be this master's business to learn how to help tactfully and without unduly checking initiative on the part of boy editors. His success depends on his ability to deal with boys; in other words, if he is a good schoolmaster he will be able to cope with this particular one of his manifold duties. Probably he will have to go gently and learn this part of his job too. But, with this aid, the editors will learn to cultivate a sober style of writing, to avoid slang, to take an interest in the doings of the younger boys, and to collect information about Old Boys from sources to which they might otherwise not find easy access. They will learn, and the boys of the school will learn in time, that the school magazine is not intended to challenge comparison with the magazine of the bookstall. It has a field of its own, and a value of its own. And the Old Boy of a school that has produced men doing good work for town or country or society, will continue to place the bound volumes of his school magazine upon his library shelves with pride and satisfaction.

H. W. SERPELL.

CHAPTER XI

SCHOOL LIBRARIES

IF we are right in assuming that one of the chief objects of education is to fit a boy to use his leisure wisely, and thereby do his work in the world most perfectly, it is certain that one of the best instruments the school possesses to accomplish this end is its Library. If a boy has learnt to love books, to distinguish good literature from bad, to desire information and to know how to get it, he is educated in a far truer sense than if he leaves school, after passing with credit the most difficult examination, without the desire to read or know anything but what pays, and without the love, for their own sake, of even the subjects in which he may happen to excel. After a certain age life offers the student few immediate and tangible rewards for his knowledge; prizes and examinations are left behind together. But a literary taste and a passion for truth, when once acquired, abide firm and independently of prizes. They are "roots and ever green" of stimulus and comfort.

Well equipped with libraries, then, the school must be if it is to succeed in its highest function. Happily, though we are still far behind Germany and France, great progress has during the last generation been made towards this ideal, especially in boarding schools. Libraries, good or bad, exist in most schools, and they are sometimes well managed. Let us devote our brief space to considering what their aims should be, and how these aims can best be realised. We cannot, perhaps, do better than follow the lead of the Headmaster of Bath College, in his article on this subject in *Teaching and Organisation*, and summarise their objects as follows: (1) to help the work of the class-room; (2) to encourage initiative and voluntary study among the boys; (3) to develop individual tastes and aptitudes; (4) to give information about the social, political, and intellectual movements of the day; (5) to provide instructive recreation and inspire a love of good reading.

In order to achieve these various ends, two distinct libraries at least are needed—one the real school library, containing the best and most representative works in the chief departments of knowledge, excepting English fiction, and particularly strong in books of reference; the other a lending-library, comprehending good novels for boys of all ages and not despising those books of travel and adventure in which the soul of younger boys delights. The former type will provide for all five of the above-named objects; the latter will confine itself to the last three, and, most of all, to the fifth. The second type will, in boarding schools, be housed in a large and comfortable room, to which all boys have access at fixed times of the day for reading, and of the week for borrowing. It should include newspapers and such of the monthly magazines as are literate, and should aim at feeding the interests of all enthusiasts for hobbies as well as for games and sports. In a day school there will probably be no room available for the lending-library except the dining-hall, and in any case it is not needful to provide magazines and newspapers or a reading-room for the whole school, since the few train-boys who would benefit by such accommodation can be given "privilege" of the senior library. It will also be found convenient, in view of the rush to get away inevitable in a day school, to divide the lending-library into blocks, say, for the Upper, Middle, and Lower Schools, each with its separate, and appropriate, provision of books, and each with its own librarians. Many of the best novels and popular books on scientific subjects may well be duplicated in each section. The only sound principle for school libraries is to make easily accessible all books which boys are willing to read, granting that they are of the right kind. It is useless, except for the top forms, to house the most attractive lending-library in England in some remote corner or attic of the building, and leave the boys to understand that it is there, and that from time to time books may be borrowed. If we want our younger boys to read, we must bring boys and books into easy contact, and, by personal supervision and interest, secure that there shall be no excuse for neglect of literature, so far as accessible and tempting shelves and organised opportunity for frequent borrowing can prevent it.

This brings us to the question of additional lending-libraries in "houses" or the form-room. Many boarding schools provide most of their fiction through "houses," and leave the school library to cater for the more serious interests of their boys. This seems to us perverse, since a boy will go to some trouble to take out a volume of Henty, but will ignore the

existence of biography and poetry unless his tutor facilitates the introduction. The small homely library of the "house" only justifies its existence if it is made instructive; and the same may be said of the form-library, universal in French schools, which here, as there, should be made the means by which the master directs the reading of his class, especially in the subjects on which the class is engaged. Indeed, such a form-library is almost indispensable if teaching is to be fully effective, at least in the higher forms. Not only should the best dictionaries and leading books of reference be always immediately available, but a collection of inexpensive classical or modern language or English works, which can be referred to in school, and taken away and read without ceremony, is of the greatest use to master and boys alike, Such books, like the pictures on the walls, should be purchased by the boys and given to the class. In a very short time a form-room will be rich both in art and literature, if appeal is made to the corporate generosity natural to boys and to their healthy determination not to be outdone by another form. In English the recent reprints are within the reach of even the schoolboy's purse.

Reverting to the more important school library, which aims at helping forward the serious educational work of the place by a provision of standard books for every type of intellectual inquiry, we need not dwell at length on the absolute necessity for such an institution in Higher Schools to-day. Unless there is such a library, boys and masters will equally suffer, even in their strictly routine studies. In teaching history, geography, English, and the classics it should be possible for a master to have at his ready command a wide range of special authorities, atlases, raised maps, books of travel, prose-writers and poets, standard editions and encyclopædias, if he is to make his lesson artistic and telling by reading extracts, copying plans of battles on the board, suggesting lines of voluntary study out of school-hours, or solving there and then a disputed point before his form by sending for a work of reference. And we would make, in passing, an emphatic protest against the pedantic rule which holds in many schools, that no master may borrow a work of reference from the library for class-room teaching. While admitting that such books should never be taken away from the building or missing from the shelves when the library is open to readers, we hold that there is everything to gain and nothing to lose by taking them on special occasions into the form-room, if they are immediately replaced, and if a notice is put up to show where they can be found. Even expensive books are meant to be used when

needed. But, while a master should be allowed to use library books in class, his main duty will be to encourage his boys to read some special subject on their own account, indicating where they will find material without telling them too precisely how to use it. The library will do more than anything to facilitate the growth of the *Seminar* spirit in our schools, if boys are told off to get up some point of information for the general benefit of the form next day, or, if the collection is comprehensive, given some adumbration of the meaning of original research by gathering from various sources material for an essay. So, too, it will foster all those tastes, literary, artistic, and scientific, which cannot be properly developed in the ordinary curriculum, by containing some good books at least on natural history, coins, painting, music, architecture, science, and archæology, and, in this connection, will supplement the museum by dealing generously with the history and antiquities of the district in which the school lies. It will take in the best monthly and quarterly reviews and the weekly journals, and will keep in touch with the outer world by the purchase of the best books of the day, whether they be accounts of a recent war or the latest volume of a great living poet or dramatist. It should take care to be stronger in authors than in criticism, and it should contain many French and German books, both classical and contemporary; above all, it must preserve a balance, and avoid the usual fate of being smothered beneath the ever-growing tomes of the history specialist. Such an equilibrium will be best attained by appointing representatives of all subjects on the Library Committee, and dividing the available funds to meet their needs in due proportion. The use of this library will generally be confined to senior boys and be considered a privilege, though the right should be extended to any boy with proper claims, chief of which will be accounted the aspiration itself to be admitted to greater familiarity with the Muses. Their devotees, alas! are not so many in England that we can afford to choke off such ambition in any wistful youngster. Finally, this library also will lend out its books with certain reservations, and with an extreme insistence on speedy return and careful handling. Its highest glory will be for its shelves to be well thinned during the holidays.

School libraries secure, in addition to all other advantages, one by-product of peculiar value: they are an admirable field for the ready and intelligent co-operation of the boys. Not only should all boys be encouraged to suggest books for inclusion, but they should be represented on the committee for the main library by two senior boys appointed

as librarians. If the lending-library is divided into blocks, each may well be put under the control of a master, who will nominate one librarian and, while retaining the right of veto, allow another to be elected by the members. The task of giving out books should be handed over to these boys, one of whom will enter names, while the other distributes the volumes; together with the master they will form a committee for the selection of new books, and will undertake the cataloguing, the exaction of fines, and the keeping of accounts; while the master will act as treasurer. As regards the catalogue, we are of opinion that different forms are required in the main, and in the lending libraries. For the latter there should be a large sheet, neatly written, posted up on the wall, on which their contents are displayed, divided into subject-headings, and then sub-divided under the name of the authors, arranged in alphabetical order, and with plenty of space between each name and letter to allow of additions. A duplicate copy might well be kept in a register in case of an accident to the sheet, but it is an enormous help, especially in the hurry of a day school, for a boy to be able to see at a glance, whenever he wishes, what books he has a chance of reading, and to make his choice in advance. For the other library, which aims at being a permanent and ever-growing collection of serious literature, we recommend the double entry (according to author and subject-matter) of books on cards, arranged in alphabetical order in drawers, and kept straight by passing a rod through the front of the drawer and holes in the bottom of the cards and then screwing it into the back. Such sets of drawers (as well as all book-cases) could easily be made in the school workshop, and the system admits of easy and indefinite expansion. We may, perhaps, be excused the truism that everywhere books should be shelved according to their subject-matter and not according to their size or colour, since the latter plan is not yet despised by the boy librarian.

As to the question of money for book-purchase, the main library, if it is lucky, will be endowed with a permanent fund, will occasionally receive the gift of rare books, and should always be presented with a volume by boys who are leaving. The lending-libraries will, perhaps, be best supported by including a general library and magazine fee in the games subscription. At a day school 3*s.* 6*d.* a term will often cover the whole cost of thus developing a boy's mind and body. The generosity of the boys can again be relied on for gifts of books. In starting such libraries ourselves, we have found it easy to induce all boys to give at least

one book. But we cannot let this opportunity slip of appealing to town support for the libraries of local schools. Such support is universal abroad; in a French town of 30,000 inhabitants the *Collège* will receive a grant of £30 from the municipality for buying books, and the State will pay its subscriptions to the principal reviews. We are sure that English towns would do as much, did they only realise how greatly, in poorer schools at least, their help is needed.

Finally, we would also commend foreign example in the equipment of Common Room Libraries for the masters. Abroad we find everywhere an admirable collection of books on the theory and practice of Education in all its branches, and of educational journals and reviews in several languages. And we find that masters read them. In England there is rarely seen in the masters' room more than a few specimen copies, and the *Schoolmasters' Year Book*, which, however excellent, hardly pretends to be exhaustive. As a result of this lack of professional food, there is little professional spirit. Schoolmasters are poor men, and books on education are often expensive; but they are necessities, and here again the town or Governors might help to provide them. They would amply repay the cost by improving the teaching.

If schools, then, are wise, they will make efficient libraries one of their first interests. If they want a model, let them visit the beautiful building which Lord Winterstoke gave to his old school, Mill Hill. If they wish to get the best value out of their books when they have bought them, let them, through their masters, secure that every boy shall read some little about many things and also a great deal consecutively about one thing. If they do this, then the next generation will be able to read without shame the noble protest of Ruskin when he says:[1] "There is a society continually open to us, of people who will talk to us as long as we like, whatever our rank or occupation; talk to us in the best words they can choose, and of the things nearest to their hearts. And this society, because it is so numerous and so gentle, and can be kept waiting round us all day long—kings and statesmen lingering patiently, not to grant audience, but to gain it!—in those plainly furnished and narrow ante-rooms, our book-case shelves—we make no account of that company, perhaps never listen to a word they would say, all day long!"

[1] *Sesame and Lilies*, section 6.

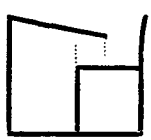
CHAPTER XII

BOYS AND THEIR HEALTH

IN England we are proud, with some justice, of having, in the last fifty years, done more than any other nation to realise, in bringing up our boys, the old classical ideal of harmonious and concurrent development of mind and body. We may not yet apply science to their material environment as carefully as it is applied in Continental schools, but we have not, except in dealing with the children of the poor, forgotten that a boy has a body which needs training as much as his mind, and that physical exercise is therefore an indispensable part of education, since brain and muscle alike atrophy if neglected, but grow and help each other greatly if used and not abused. There are, however, still serious defects in our treatment of the young: what these are will perhaps come out incidentally in this short essay, in which we shall give, for what they are worth, our opinions on the conditions of good health among boys, in the light of our own observation and experience, and under the guidance of the chief authorities on the subject. We are especially indebted to Dr. Clement Dukes of Rugby in his *Health in Schools*, and to Dr. Lyster's *School Hygiene*.

Beginning with the school itself, and confining our attention to the class-room, we do not hesitate to say that we are still in the dark ages, compared with America and most of Europe, in respect of arrangements for securing health and comfort in the place where the boys spend nearly half their working life, and where they do, or should do, their hardest work. And our Public Schools are in this matter some of the worst offenders. Flat tables to write on, or, worse, old-fashioned backless benches with desks attached far forward, so as to curve the spine when the boy is writing, without resting it when he is sitting upright; crowded forms in dark and ill-ventilated rooms; even gas-brackets inadequate to dissipate the gloom of seven o'clock on a

December morning: all this is still a common lot, even for the sons of the wealthy, and in schools where high fees give no excuse for antiquated equipment. Happily, except for the salaries of the masters, reform has begun to intrude upon their privacy, and some of their recent class-rooms, in designing which the school doctor has collaborated with the architect, are altogether admirable. Dr. Dukes lays down that, when up in form, each boy should be provided with a minimum of 400 cubic feet of air, and it goes without saying that windows should be kept always open, preferably on the lee-side, and that after each lesson the room should be left vacant for a few minutes and thoroughly flushed. Draughts are not an end in themselves, and can generally be avoided; but boys should be taught to be glad of a draught in preference to foul air. As to desks, it is obvious that they should vary in size according to the age, or height, of the boy, instead of offering a single type. Moreover, they should vary in each class-room, since boys are generally promoted on other grounds than size; and at the beginning of each term the master should see that the desk is fitted to the boy, instead of letting the boy fit himself to the desk as best he can. As a rule, four sizes will suffice for boys between the ages of ten and eighteen, and should always, if the desk is attached to the seat (and there are objections to loose chairs), be of the shape known as "Minus," which allows the back to be supported and the body kept erect while the boy is writing or reading, since the desk is brought near to the body, not the body tilted forward to reach the desk. Such a type is warmly recommended by Dr. Lyster, and he suggests that it should be made with its middle hinged, so that, whereas it will slope at an angle of 15° for writing purposes, its under-surface may be turned up at an angle of 45°. This is an ideal angle for reading, because the top and bottom of the page are kept at a uniform distance from the eyes and constant refocussing avoided, and its general adoption would be an important gain in view of the damage done by sight-strain during school-days. Moreover, the desk should always be so arranged that the light comes in from the left, and, in writing, the pen should point its end away from the body, not towards it, finger and arm cramp, *pace* the stern pedagogues of the past, not really being an ideal kind of discipline for boys. And, since we want an active form in which the boys co-operate, we shall if possible put a blackboard surface all round the room



"Minus" Desk.

at a suitable height, and see that it is wiped with a half-damp sponge, in order that chalk-dust, proved to spread consumption, may not claim too many youthful victims. Lastly, as we shall recognise that for young boys sitting still is cruelty, we shall alternate desk-work with frequent periods of standing round, *standing*, not slouching, with shoulders well back and, if for any length of time, the right foot slightly advanced. In such points it is better to be called a faddist than to neglect the welfare of the children entrusted to us. If we desire full activity and concentration of mind, we must, by reasonable provision for their comfort, enable boys to forget for the moment that they have a body, instead of being reminded perpetually of its presence by uneasiness or fatigue.

This question of fatigue brings us to the consideration of how long a lesson can profitably last, and how great the boy's total amount of work should be each day. Dr. Lyster tells us that it is medically proven that

at	6	years	a child's	attention	can be	fixed	for only	15 minutes,
„	7–10	„	„	„	„	„	„	20 „
„	10–12	„	„	„	„	„	„	25 „
„	12–16	„	„	„	„	„	„	30 „

In view of this, we shall act wisely if we restrict each period of consecutive work to a maximum of thirty minutes for boys under ten, and of forty-five minutes for boys from ten to sixteen, and give them plenty of change of position during their time in form. Moreover, there should not only be a few minutes' interval between each lesson, but after every two lessons, in the middle of the morning, a quarter of an hour's break, during which all boys should be turned into the open air and encouraged to take active exercise. If they were not too dignified they could get both pleasure and profit from such simple games as "rounders" and "follow the leader." Every schoolmaster knows that the best work is done when the boys are fresh, that work is better on Mondays and Tuesdays, after the week-end's rest, than later in the week, and better during the earlier morning hours than later in the day. The practice, therefore, is sound of giving three half-holidays a week, if possible, and working on Saturday mornings, since flagging energies are thus periodically revived; and, as far as the time-table permits, it is expedient that the younger boys should work at the harder subjects, such as mathematics and Latin prose, during the morning hours, lighter studies, such as English literature and history, being kept for the afternoons. When boys are older they are capable of harder

work and more prolonged attention, and their need for protection against overstrain is less. Under the present *régime* it is the little boys who suffer, by being kept up to the standard rightly demanded of the top of the school, though, even at the top, we are convinced that a fifty minutes' lesson is better than an hour's. "The half is greater than the whole" *in* many things.

So, too, with respect to the number of hours worked during the week, including all preparation. Dr. Dukes gives the following table, and it should be regarded as allowing the very maximum amount consonant with health:

For boys aged			10–12,	24	hours of work per week.	
"	"	"	12–14,	30	"	"
"	"	"	14–15,	35	"	"
"	"	"	15–16,	40	"	"
"	"	"	16–17,	45	"	"
"	"	"	17–19,	50	"	"

Delicate boys should certainly do less; and, when we have abolished the indefensible practice of awarding entrance scholarships to Public Schools on our present lines, we shall no longer meet the tired little fellow who *must* do his Latin verses or Greek prose, in spite of a headache, because "he is in for Winchester." Early pressure results so often in permanent staleness and sterility, that, even from the standpoint of the intellect, the game is not worth the candle; on every physical and moral ground it is self-condemned. Work should be apportioned according to the age and strength of the boy, since it is easy to take the edge off the mind for life by abusing its powers before it is matured and "set," and special indulgence should be shown to boys who are highly-strung or overworked. If they are kept back for a year, or sent to the seaside, their later work will only gain from such a period of "lying fallow." We educate for life, not for the school. Again, schoolmasters too often forget that a boy's brain often "stands still" at the age of puberty, because of the demands made on his physical nature at this time. The remedy is patience, not the rod.

In the matter of sleep it is hard to say whether, in England, the school or the home is the greater offender. Whereas French boarders, old and young, go to bed at 8.30, in many of our schools the little boys are lucky if they are asleep by 10, and the older if half an hour later. It is statistically proved that English boys get less sleep than their Continental comrades, and every doctor agrees that they need far more than their present amount. Yet we still get early school

in the winter, for the sake of "discipline"; we still see little boys dozing through half an hour's evening chapel at a time when they ought to be in bed; and we still come across prefects in their tutor's room at 11 p.m. It is true that improvement is spreading, in spite of Headmasters' laments, but we are still far from seeing Dr. Dukes's wise scheme in practice. He would give

to boys of	10–12,	11	hours	sleep	per night,
" "	12–14,	10½	"	"	"
" "	14–16,	10	"	"	"
" "	16–18,	9½	"	"	"
" "	18–19,	9	"	"	"

and more should be allowed during cold weather and at the beginning of adolescence. He also claims 800 cubic feet for each boy in the dormitories, and rightly condemns the use of cubicles. The French have no love of open windows, but they at least build dormitories that are models of height and space. Let us adopt their measurements and add the ventilation. And let us keep all boys who go to bed early in separate dormitories, where they will not be disturbed by the arrival of the late battalion. Even boys go to bed in order that they may sleep without interruption. Proper rest boys must have, if they are to do proper work; they are far better asleep than yawning in early school or through late preparation. But schools are not the only, or the worst, culprits. How many parents see that their boys go to bed, *without* the *Captain* and a candle, at 9 o'clock? Mr. Paton tells of a boy of eight sitting up till 10.30 as a regular thing, and of boys coming to school without freshness because their mothers do not see that they sleep with their bedroom windows open.

Boys, being animals, not only sleep but eat, and, being animals of a highly artificial and adaptive species, require clothing in Northern climates. Let us therefore touch on their food and dress, briefly. As to food, it seems agreed that boys require it in no small quantity, since they have not merely to repair waste, but to increase their bulk; that they should never work on an empty stomach, even for "discipline"; that they should be given a good breakfast, should take their principal meal in the middle of the day, should avoid "snacks," should drink milk and not beer, and should be denied such suppers as the cold pork, chipped potatoes, and coffee at 10.30 p.m., which we gather are considered suitable in some Manchester homes for a boy of fourteen. The duty of the boarding school is to give the boys food varied and attractive

enough substantially to reduce the profits of the tuck-shop; to see that the little boys are served first, instead of hurriedly bolting the fragments that remain; and to make for ever impossible the odious sight of the masters' table steaming with kidneys and fragrant with kippers, while hungry boys who cannot afford the "extra" meat or egg look on with wistful eyes as they eat their bread-and-butter. The duty of the parent whose boy cannot return home is to see that he gets a substantial hot meal at noon: happily more and more day schools to-day provide such meals at a nominal cost, and a proper dining-hall to eat them in. For this, as for so many things, we have to thank the pressure brought to bear by the Board of Education.

Clothing for boys is a subject on which there is little difference in essentials among medical advisers. It should be light and warm in the winter, light and cool in the summer, always loose and airy enough to let the body "breathe." Exceptionally delicate boys apart, we believe that Almond was a pioneer of the best kind when he made it "correct form" at Loretto to wear shirts open at the neck without neckties, often without coats, and "shorts" in school and out. Linen collars and Eton suits, together with Almond's button-hole, are best reserved for Sundays, while the sombre black on which some public schools insist makes for little but mediæval gloom. Nothing (and on this all doctors lay special stress) is worse for the health of boys than tight trousers, highly braced, or than knickerbockers that fasten closely round the knee and exclude all air. Dr. Stanley Hall (*Adolescence*, vol. i. p. 468) writes, in an important context to which we refer the reader: "Modern garments are less favourable to the health of boys than those of classical antiquity, the Orient, or even, to a great extent, those of savage races. The body should not be too warmly dressed in cold weather. Of course the ungrown body has more surface in proportion to its bulk than that of a larger adult, but sufficient cold sends the blood inward to nourish the internal organs, stimulates greater activity, and generates warmth." The cap, too, however useful an indication of school membership or athletic prowess, is best replaced by a badge on the coat or jersey, if, like the Old Blues of Christ's Hospital, we mean to keep our hair. Bare heads, bare necks, bare knees, are the golden rule in school and street alike. For younger boys at least, few costumes could be better than the kilt, which so fully proved its hygienic merit in South Africa; or a woollen jersey in winter and a linen blouse in summer, with loose, short knickerbockers suspended round

the hips by an elastic band ; or, again, the sailor suit. Above all, the material should admit of regular washing : Elementary Inspectors are said to find the atmosphere of girls' schools far sweeter than that of boys', because girls' clothes will wash. If our richer schoolboys set the fashion of a rational dress, their poorer brothers will follow their lead, and the nation will gain. In France linen suits are general in the summer, and very well the boys look in them. Lastly, we might remember that boots can now be bought which preserve the natural shape of the foot, and that, for day-boys, the bag which pulls down one arm should be as anathema as the satchel which weighs on one shoulder. The only proper way to carry books is in the knapsack-satchel used by German boys.

Finally, as to exercise. Games are treated of elsewhere : the medical authorities whom we have consulted are all unanimous in declaring that they alone are a satisfactory and healthy form of exercise, because the activity they promote is pleasurable and varied. Hence the need for facilitating them in urban schools, and their superiority to drill, which Dr. Lyster regards, " particularly for children under fourteen, as an unmitigated evil," stating that his own experience shows that, whereas boys are reduced to mental and physical exhaustion after twenty minutes' drilling, they are ready for good mental work after an hour or two's play. Dr. Whelpton (*Physical Education and Hygiene*) condemns drill as stamping out the individuality of the boys, while admitting that it develops ready obedience. We incline to think that its proper place is in the Officers' Training Corps, for young boys in the open air and without clubs, and above all, as a punishment which, like caning, has the great advantage of not sacrificing a boy's play-time to extra mental toil. Of the gymnasium, too, Dr. Lyster would limit the use " to winter, after dark, and on wet days," as being merely a change of work, and not a recreation. We agree that nothing could be more futile than to give a boy in the gymnasium hour ten minutes' exercise and fifty minutes' spectacle of the performances of the rest of the class, and, while convinced that the gymnasium is excellent as an institution in which boys can, under instruction, develop agility and physique, with pleasure to themselves if given proper freedom, we should unhesitatingly prefer a fives-court, if a school's choice lay between the two. Of games, those are best which give real exercise to all the muscles, and from this standpoint Dr. Lyster gives the palm to boxing and Rugby football ; while Dr. Whelpton reminds us that the chest is developed less effectively by arm-exercises than by violent activities which stimulate

deep breathing, such as football, hockey, fives, running, quick walking, swimming, and wrestling. It is, however, imperative that the school doctor (and some time even Secondary day schools will command such expert service) should physically examine all boys at regular intervals, not merely to test their capacity for playing certain games without risk, but in order to make sure that their bodies are making proper progress towards a strong, sound manhood, and to be able, by warning the master or parent, to make the necessary changes in work or food for all who are losing weight or marking time. We quote from Dr. Lyster's book the following table of the average height and weight of English boys, presumably of all classes. The difference, alas! between the Public School boy and the Elementary School boy is of many pounds and inches.[1]

Age of Boys.	Average Height.	Average Weight.
10	51·7 in.	66·4 lb.
11	53·5 „	71·1 „
12	54·9 „	76·8 „
13	57·1 „	83·7 „
14	59·6 „	93·5 „
15	62·3 „	104·9 „
16	64·7 „	120·0 „

Such, in barest outline, are some of the points which we wish to emphasise as important for the health of our schoolboy to-day. We can hardly spend our time to better purpose, schoolmasters and parents combined, than in studying and forwarding his health, seeing that he will be the father of the

[1] The value of games and proper nutrition can be gauged by the following table:—

RELATIVE HEIGHT OF BOYS 11 TO 12 YEARS OF AGE

	Average Height.
Public Schools (country)	54·98 in.
Middle Class Schools (towns)	53·85 „
Elementary Schools (agricultural districts)	53·01 „
„ „ (towns)	52·60 „
„ „ (factory, country districts)	52·17 „
„ „ (factory, towns)	51·56 „
„ „ (industrial)	50·02 „

The Anthropometric Committee of the British Association, who published these figures in 1883, showed that this difference is, more or less, maintained at all ages, male adults varying, according to environment, to the extent of 3½ inches. Similar variations were observed in weight and other physical qualities. Thus the artisan boy of 11 in towns only weighs 69 lb. as compared with the 71·1 lb. (in 1883, 72 lb.) of the average boy of all classes.

next generation, and the guardian of a State and Empire which demand every ounce of energy, and every drop of good, clean blood, of which the race is capable. And we are interested in his health for his own sake; for it involves his happiness, and he is such a pleasant fellow when he chooses, that we, all of us, want him badly to be strong, and wise, and kind, and happy.[1]

[1] The importance we attach to the systematic teaching of Hygiene in class, is shown by the inclusion of the subject among the contributions on method in Part III.

CHAPTER XIII

THE HOME AND THE SCHOOL

IT is likely that no other single reform in the matter of education can compare, in efficacy and importance, with the improvement of relations between home and school, with the increase of a loyal and sympathetic collaboration of both agencies in the training of their common interest, the boy, with the growing recognition of their mutual rights and their mutual duties. That such a change of attitude exists is among the most welcome signs of the times: without the minimum of co-operation every educational effort is foredoomed to failure; without the maximum no such effort can greatly succeed, or produce its best fruit. When the parent realises that, including time spent on the playing-field, his boy only passes one-fifth of the sum of the weekly hours within the domain of the school, and that for less than nine months of the year, he will see that all that the school can do is insignificant in comparison with the influence and capacity of the home; while the schoolmaster who appreciates rightly his professional limitations will not only make the most of the time at his disposal, but will take a wider view of his duty, and by courtesy and sympathy secure that the parent shall support him, and conspire with him in keeping before the boy a common standard of ideals.

And, first, we must emphasise the fact that the school receives its boys with characters already almost made or marred, and that, unless a boy has been taught, while yet in petticoats and in the nursery, the rudiments of such virtues as self-help, self-control, and self-denial, he will find them "dour learning" at school, if he ever manages to learn them at all. Perhaps, moreover, there never was a time when the country was in greater need of these qualities, and never a time when home-life did less to encourage them. To-day, in middle-class homes, everything is done for the boy and nothing by him: he comes to regard servants not as fellow-creatures, but

as helots: if he is at a boarding school he may indeed learn to burn toast and stew tea, as a fag, but when he returns home he is received as a prince, allowed to get up when he pleases, and given a round of enjoyment and a surfeit of luxury, to compensate for "the poor boy's hard life at school." The gain would be infinite if, both in school and home, he were taught to clean his own boots and make his own bed. In the summer camp he does both, and enjoys it, and peels potatoes and washes pots as well. Such self-dependence should be normal, not an amusing change. Tolstoy is right in this. Mr. Paton quotes somewhere the excellent device of Bilton Grange School, Rugby:

> Blessed is he that hath learned to do things for himself,
> And cursed is he that hath only learned to ring the bell.

In what follows, we shall chiefly refer to the duties and rights of parents of day boys, since those who send their sons to boarding school, except for urgent reasons, voluntarily abdicate most of their authority and all of their highest privileges. While it is a thousand times better that a boy should be sent away to school than spoilt or neglected in a pleasure-loving home, or have his natural instincts thwarted by parents who are blind to boyish needs, yet it is arguable that luxurious homes are an unnecessary evil, and it is certain that unimaginative parents should have remained celibate. We will therefore content ourselves with condoling with boarders' parents on their self-inflicted loss, with suggesting that they should not send foolish newspapers to their sons as a substitute for letters, while recommending them to visit the school as often as they can, and to insist on being regularly posted up about their boys' place in form-order, that they may, with what interest and knowledge is in them, admonish or encourage.

What, then, is the special function of the home in the training of boys, in securing, as it alone can, their harmonious and all-round development? Another article deals with the question of how they should be fed and clothed, and it is obvious that it is a parent's plain duty to see that his boy takes full advantage of the opportunities afforded by the school for physical exercise. No money is more wisely spent than on a games-club subscription or a football outfit: no greater wrong can be done a child than, through obtuse economy or uninformed timidity, preventing him getting that athletic training which it is the distinction of English education to confer. But none of these things, dress or food, or the securing of exercise, is the peculiar province of the home; all

three can be managed equally well, and often better, by the boarding school. The unique contribution of the home at its best is the disciplined development of a boy's individuality in a normal environment, in contact with the realities of life, the cultivation of all the tastes and interests he possesses, or can by tactful guidance be given, the atmosphere of silent affection, of gentle trust, the appeal to his strength by the weakness of sisters and younger brothers, the control of his conduct by love. In a home of the right type the boy can hear good music, and talk of greater things than games; his view of life is widened, and his insight into its claims deepened, by countless incidents that suggest and stimulate; he is taught obedience and good behaviour by their being treated as a matter of course; he learns courtesy each time he is served at table, and helpfulness every time he goes an errand; he is free to arrange his leisure for himself, and gains in self-initiative by distributing unaided his evening between work and play, and in self-control by giving up play for work without the compulsion of the bell, or of a programme imposed on him by others. The home can train in the wise use of money, and encourage generosity by restricting an allowance which is spent in self-indulgence, and increasing it without stint when it is wanted by the boy for a worthy or unselfish purpose. In these and numberless other ways the influence of the home can make for individuality combined with character, whereas the school can, and in England does, develop character, but only, by virtue of its limitations, in its more intellectual and virile aspects, producing men more easily than "gentle" men, and its essential tendency is to turn out rather a type, a class, than individuals. The boy, if he is to attain to complete manhood, needs equally the atmosphere of home and school, to be both civilised and braced, to appreciate the kindly spirit of the hearth as well as the dry light of the class-room and the robust genius of the playing-field. At a good day school, and given a good home, he is, we are convinced, under the best of all conditions for running the straight race to this ideal.[1]

[1] It would be foolish to pretend that there is any similarity between a boarder's life in England and his life in France. But in both countries the loss which is involved by his divorce from the home and the larger world is identical. Nowhere is this contrast better described than in *Le Livre de mon Ami*, by Anatole France, pp. 156–61. We venture to quote at some length, and to recommend the quotation to the reader. "A mesure que je viellis, je m'intéresse de plus en plus à la rentrée des classes. Si j'avais été pensionnaire dans un lycée, le souvenir de mes études me serait cruel et je le chasserais. Mais mes parents ne me mirent point à ce bagne. J'étais externe dans un vieux collège un peu monacal et caché; je voyais

Such then is, in brief, the duty of the home towards the boy, considered in itself as a preparation for launching him upon the outer waters of life, and as a constant refurbishing on his daily return to harbour. What, we will now ask, is its duty in relation to the school, with which it perforce collaborates in making men? Some details are obvious at once and obviously important. The parent will encourage his boy in regular preparation of home-work and provide him with a quiet retreat: he will insist on his regular and punctual attendance, and on his clean and neat appearance: he will not expect his boy to be excused home-work because he has been to a party or dancing-class, or to be excused merited punishment because "he can only be led, and not driven." He will not teach his son dishonesty by giving him unacknowledged, or slackness by unnecessary, assistance in his evening tasks. He will remember that no school can succeed unless all parents respect its rules and support the authority of its Headmaster. He will refrain from sending a Form-master a daily letter describing the virtues or trials of "his little lad," and from making too frequent raids on the school premises to explain to the staff the defective way in which they conduct their business. He will not cross-examine his boy about the failings of his masters, or even tolerate tales out of school,

chaque jour la rue et la maision, et n'étais point retranché, comme les pensionnaires, de la vie publique et de la vie privée. Aussi, mes sentiments n'étaient point d'un esclave; ils se développaient avec cette douceur et cette force que la liberté donne à tout ce que croît en elle. Il ne s'y mêlait pas de haine. La curiosité y était bonne et c'est pour aimer que je voulais connaître. Tout ce que je voyais en chemin dans la rue, les hommes, les bêtes, les choses, contribuait, plus qu'on ne saurait croire, à me faire sentir la vie dans ce qu'elle a de simple et de fort.

"Rien ne vaut la rue pour faire comprendre à un enfant la machine sociale. Il faut qu'il ait vu, au matin, les laitières, les porteurs d'eau, les charbonniers; il faut qu'il ait examiné les boutiques de l'épicier, du charcutier, et du marchand de vin; il faut qu'il ait vu passer les régiments, musique en tête; il faut enfin qu'il ait humé l'air de la rue, pour sentir que chacun fasse sa tâche en ce monde. J'ai conservé de ces courses du matin et du soir, de la maison au collège et du collège à la maison, une curiosité affectueuse pour les métiers et les gens de métier. . . .

"L'école en plein vent m'enseigna, comme vous voyez, de hautes sciences. L'école domestique me fut plus profitable encore. Les repas en famille, si doux quand les carafes sont claires, la nappe blanche, et les visages tranquilles, les dîners de chaque jour avec sa causerie familière, donnent à l'enfant le goût et l'intelligence des choses de la maison, des choses humbles et saintes de la vie. S'il a le bonheur d'avoir comme moi, des parents intelligents et bons, les propos de table qu'il entend lui donnent un sens juste et le goût d'aimer. Il mange chaque jour de ce pain béni que le père spirituel rompit et donna aux pèlerins dans l'auberge d'Emmaüs. Et il se dit comme eux: 'Mon cœur est tout chaud au dedans de moi.' Les repas que les pensionnaires prennent au réfectoire n'ont point cette douceur et cette vertu. Oh! la bonne école que l'école de la maison!"

however amusing, if their humour is based on irreverence for the authority which it is his duty (and his advantage) to support, not diminish; and he will recollect that even schoolmasters are human, and not too highly paid for honourable work. Above all, he will not disparage a subject with which his son is discontented because he finds it hard, by saying before him, "I never learnt such nonsense at school myself." His attitude will be, not how much his boy can get out of the school, but how much both of them can do to help it; and his talk, not so much of what the school does badly (and it would be the first to admit its often irremediable imperfections), as of the many things it does well, of the manly fellow it has made of his son, of the extra help a master gave to get him through an examination, of the all-round trouble taken to secure his welfare. He will some day learn that in most Secondary day schools the fee covers only half the cost of teaching, and, seeing that every boy thus gets the equivalent of a scholarship, by virtue of grants or endowments, he will foot the school-bill and pay the Education rate, by which he hands on to poorer families the benefit he himself has received, with equal cheerfulness. In brief, he will refrain from sins both of omission and of commission, avoiding such pitfalls as we have described, into which he is wont to fall rather from lack of thought than lack of heart, and actively supporting the school he has learnt to trust and regard with pride. Nothing makes a boy keener or more loyal than to know that his people are in full sympathy with his school, and nothing so heartens a Headmaster and his staff as to feel that their work is appreciated and their endeavours backed by the home.

But if parents have duties, they have also rights, and to these rights the school will do well to pay a scrupulous regard. It will recognise the claims of the home, and, hygienic reasons apart, will not so monopolise a boy's leisure that he has no time left from work and play for family and social relations. The Headmaster will set apart a special time daily for seeing parents and discussing the interests and prospects of their sons: he will know that there is everything to gain from co-operation and clear understanding, and will very rarely find his efforts unsuccessful or his courtesy abused. The Form-master or House-tutor will not limit the pastoral care over his young flock to the school premises, but will take every opportunity of getting to know his boys in their homes, visiting them not only when they are ill, but whenever occasion offers: his reward will be the enlargement of his sympathy and the willing effort which his boys will make to please him, when they and their parents see that he is not only a master,

but a friend. The complaint is sometimes made in France that parents are jealous of a master's influence, and resent its extension beyond the class-room. Such a perverse attitude we believe to be unknown in England; we are sure that our own experience is normal, and it is that parents show a touching gratitude for every little display of personal interest in their boy's welfare, and receive his master into their homes with a charming friendliness and hospitality; and every tutor in a boarding school regards the pleasant relations he forms with his boys' parents as one of the happiest features of his life. In this country we are more and more coming to understand that success in education involves keeping the home open to the school and the school open to the home. In a day school the latter of these two ideals may be realised in many ways. At Manchester Grammar School a room is set apart for Assistant-masters to interview parents, who receive a schedule of the various times at which they can be seen, and are asked to send word beforehand to the master that he may, if necessary, consult his colleagues about the boy. And besides the ordinary school functions, such as speech-day, conversazione, sports, concert, organ-recital, and the like, at which the presence of parents is such a help, it is everywhere possible and expedient to follow Mr. Paton's lead, and institute two evenings yearly at which the school is "at home" to parents, and mothers and masters can meet and talk about Jack and Tom, though the master often finds it hard to discover which of his flock this Jack or Tom may be. Such gatherings allow a conference to be held, in which some special school-rule may be explained, or information given about the advantages of different kinds of work. Parents can raise any question they like with regard to the school, and hear it freely discussed, and they are shown specimens of what is being done. The "house" system in day schools affords another unique occasion, by house garden-parties in the summer, for at once developing the house spirit and bringing parents into personal touch with the house-master or tutor. And we may say, in passing, that, where school functions are concerned, their success depends not merely on the Headmaster, but on his wife, who by tact and interest, and by active sympathy with boys and every side of school-life, can, and often does, make her husband's task lighter, his efforts more effective, and the school more human.

The parents, then, will, by every sensible school, be taken into confidence and into partnership, and the school will not aim merely at indirect influence on the home through its boys, but at coming into direct and frequent relations with

their parents. And it will not only welcome them in the flesh at such times as we have sketched above (and perhaps also on occasional days when they are invited to see the school at work under ordinary conditions), but it will endeavour to interest them by sending home good specimens of a boy's work, by explaining in a prospectus or on a printed circular the relative value of school subjects, the scheme of the school's instruction, by suggesting, too, suitable books for their boys to read at home. In this way they can be made to realise the value, for their boys, of "sitting out" the full school course, apart from the outer and official sanctions which, we hope, will soon make such a course normal and necessary for every pupil. And parental co-operation can be secured, in advancing the school's corporate life and public spirit, by following the example of Clifton and sending pamphlets in which their educational value is explained. Order-cards, reports, school-lists, circulars, functions, interviews, conferences, visiting—none of these means will the school neglect. For they are indispensable means to the high end which the Parents' National Educational Union has done so much to promote, the whole-hearted and sympathetic collaboration of home and school in training boys to serve God and man effectively in whatsoever position they are placed. The school should be a centre of intellectual life, and of energy, physical and moral. The home alone can be the nurse of individuality and of the gentler human virtues. Apart, each is incomplete and ineffective; working together, they can breed *men*, in the fullest and deepest meaning of the word.

PART V

THE CASE FOR REFORM

I. THE REFORM OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL
II. THE REFORM OF THE PREPARATORY SCHOOL
III. THE REFORM OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOL
IV. THE REFORM OF THE UNIVERSITIES
V. THE SECONDARY EDUCATION OF THE WORKING CLASSES
VI. CONCLUSION

CHAPTER I

THE REFORM OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

ANY one who has studied the Report of the Royal Commission on Secondary Education, published in 1895, and the Board of Education's Report of the Consultative Committee on Higher Elementary Schools, published in 1906, may be forgiven if he regards what is called the educational system of this country as a miscellaneous collection of educational efforts wherein much energy, enthusiasm, and high purpose go to waste for lack of rational organisation. A remark in the latter report, although occurring in a section referring specially to lower Secondary Schools, may readily be taken as generally applicable to schools under the Board of Education: "There has been no national policy, and the schools have naturally developed along the path of the largest grant." A further and more serious indictment is found in the Report of a Committee on Industrial Education (dated July 1906), giving the views of representatives of various trades, chambers of commerce, secretaries of county education committees, technical institutes, etc. Therein is stated that the following defects are apparent in children from elementary schools:

(1) They are not able to think for themselves.
(2) They are not thoroughly grounded in essentials.
(3) They are not accurate in their work.

The opinion of those who make the charge is that these defects are mainly caused by two conditions:

(1) The classes are too large.
(2) The curriculum of an elementary school is too wide.

While people interested in industrial and technical education are thus exercised in their minds, it is clear from the Royal Commission's Report that representatives of Secondary Schools are desirous of an improvement in the methods and facilities whereby children may be transferred from Elementary to Secondary Schools, the general feeling being apparently that, on the one hand, the present Elementary

School education is not a suitable preparation for Secondary Schools, and, on the other, that the transfer to Secondary Schools ought to be made easier and more generally applicable.

On all sides there is much dissatisfaction with the Elementary Schools; from all sides come recommendations for their improvement; the Board of Education, with restless activity, introduces change after change and issues exhaustive and voluminous instructions and suggestions from the facile pen of the Permanent Secretary, until the wearied teachers, managers, and directors of the Elementary School world sigh for a quiescent period during which schemes and plans may be fairly and fully tried and opportunities given for the schools to develop. Such a "close" season, say of ten years, would be a great boon in itself. If it could be introduced by two other changes in the condition of Elementary School life, to be mentioned shortly, the blessing would be enhanced and a huge advantage would accrue to English education from the primary grades upwards.

It is generally agreed that one of the greatest needs of the day is the unification of our educational systems, the destruction of the barrier that divides the Elementary School from the Secondary School. The great gulf which separates the two is largely social, but social influence is strengthened, encouraged, and supported by departmental administration. A comparison of the regulations of the Board of Education for Elementary and for Secondary Schools will exhibit a preferential treatment in favour of the latter which is as unjust as it is unwise, and which must be removed ere unification is possible. Thus:

EXTRACTS FROM THE REGULATIONS OF THE BOARD OF EDUCATION

Secondary Schools	Elementary Schools
(A) *Accommodation*	
The central hall should have a floor space of *at least* 6 *sq. ft.* for each scholar, and if the school be for less than 150 scholars, 8 sq. ft. per scholar should be provided.	The central hall should have a floor space of *not more than* 4 *sq. ft.* for each scholar, *about* 3½ *sq. ft.* will be sufficient.
There must be class-rooms at the rate of 4 for every 100 scholars. No class-room should be designed for more than 30 *scholars.*	The number of class-rooms should be sufficient for the size and circumstances of the school. *A class-room should not be planned to accommodate more than from* 50 *to* 60 *children, but in special cases somewhat larger rooms may be approved.*

SECONDARY SCHOOLS (*contd.*)	ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS (*contd.*)
(A) *Accommodation (contd.)*	
A floor area of from 17 *to* 18 *sq. ft.*, will be required, according to the size of the class. Where it is found difficult to provide this amount the Board will be prepared to accept a minimum allowance of 16 sq. ft. per scholar.	The plans of the school-room and class-room must show an average of not less than 10 *sq. ft. older scholars* (8 *sq. ft. infants*) *of floor space* for each place proposed to be provided.
(B) *Size of Classes*	
The number of scholars taught together at one time must not as a rule exceed 30, and *must in no case exceed* 35.	The staff must be sufficient for the average attendance measured by the following scale: Head Teacher, 50 children; Certificated Assistant Teachers, 60 children, etc. (Article 12 [a]). The number of scholars *habitually present at one time* under the instruction of any one teacher should not exceed by more than 15 per cent., the number entered in the Scale of Article 12 (a) against the grade of the teacher in question (i.e. *for Certificated Assistant Teachers* 69 *scholars*).
(C) *Method of Assessment of Grant*	
The number of registered scholars will be taken on the 1st Oct., 1st Feb., and 1st June in each school year, and one-third of the sum of these numbers will be the number on which grant is payable (i.e. *the average number on roll*).	Grant is paid for *each unit of average attendance.*
(D) *Grants*	
£2 on account of each scholar between 10 and 12 years of age, £5 on account of each scholar between 12 and 18 years of age.	*Infants.*—17*s.* for each unit of average attendance (22*s.* if the average attendance is less than 20). *Older Scholars.*—22*s.* for each unit of average attendance, Fee grant of 10*s.* per unit of average attendance aged between 3 and 15, Aid grant under Section 10 Education Act, 1902, averaging (in 1905-6) 9*s.* 3*d.* (In Manchester it is calculated that the grants for Infants and Older Scholars taken together yield an average of £2 per annum.)

SECONDARY SCHOOL (*contd.*)	ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS (*contd.*)
(E) *Grants to Small Schools*	
Where, owing to the smallness of the numbers in a school, the grant payable is less than £250, the Board may, after considering the greater proportional cost required for its efficient maintenance, make up the grant to £250.	Where the population of the parish in which a school is situated is less than 500, and there is no other Public Elementary School available, the Board may make an addition to all other grants—(*a*) a special grant at the rate of £10 *a year* if the population is less than 300 and exceeds 200, or at the rate of £15 *a year* if the population does not exceed 200, and (*b*) a special grant at the rate of £10 *a year* (provided that the staff has satisfied the conditions of Article 12 [b]).
(F) *Special Grants to meet the Expenses of Educational Experiment*	
The Board may augment the grant to such amount as they think fit towards meeting expense incurred by the school in respect of special educational experiments approved by the Board.	

Comment on the foregoing is unnecessary, and the limitations of space forbid anything more than the mention of such improvements as:

(*a*) Reduction in the size of classes;

(*b*) Increase in the teaching power by the introduction of trained teachers in the place of the many thousands at present employed in our schools who possess only the qualification of maturity of age;

(*c*) Replacement of old and ill-adapted school buildings by sanitary structures, well built, well placed, well warmed, well lighted, well equipped;

(*d*) More rigorous enforcement of the attendance law;

(*e*) The feeding and clothing of poor children;

(*f*) Special provision for dull, defective, epileptic, and crippled children, which instead of being permissive should be compulsory;

(*g*) Remuneration of teachers.

There are, however, two subjects which stand out amongst all others as most needing attention, and which, indeed, being reformed will lead directly or indirectly to the removal of most of the defects and deficiencies of elementary education.

The change most urgently needed is a change in the

administration of grant. The method of supplying funds from the national exchequer for the purpose of elementary education is pernicious; the amount supplied is inadequate. The vital error of attempting to deal with educational effort on purely commercial lines has been with us all through the history of the Education Department: the details of administration have varied, but the principle has been constant—the principle of "Payment on Results." Formerly these results were measured, or thought to be measured, by inspectorial examination of little children, and money was paid in proportion to the number of individual passes. This method has given place to a mosaic of grants calculated on the attendance: (*a*) The Aid Grant payable under Section 10 of the Education Act, 1902, (*b*) the Fee Grant, (*c*) the Annual Grant in accordance with the Article 3 (a) of the Code, (*d*) Special Grants, (*e*) Special Subjects Grants—4*s*. for Cookery, 2*s*. for Laundry, 4*s*. for Dairy Work, 2*s*. for Gardening, 7*s*. for Handicraft, etc., etc., on behalf of each scholar who makes the required attendance. The huge amount of registration and calculation of attendances, the checking and re-checking of registers, the unpleasant supervision of teachers in their marking of the registers so as to prevent falsification, all constitute an enormous misdirection of energy and cause a large unnecessary expenditure of time and money. The attention of both managers and teachers is unduly focussed upon attendance, for the grants depend upon the attendance, and the very existence of the schools depends upon the grants. All possible means are used to coax, entice, or compel children to attend school with perfect regularity, too often without due regard to their health. Medical officers of health find themselves in a position of antagonism towards attendance authorities; the former are struggling to promote the physical well-being of the public, the latter to maintain a high percentage of attendance, for thereon depends the grant. Liberty in the choice of a curriculum best suited to the needs of a district is restricted, if not destroyed; educational experiment, encouraged in Secondary, is discouraged in Elementary Schools; as already quoted, "The schools have naturally developed along the path of the largest grant." In only too many instances this evil is intensified by education committees paying their teachers wholly or partially in proportion to the grant earned. Teachers are not independent of the necessaries of life nor oblivious of its comforts; their remuneration is by no means great. When every absence means a loss of money to them, can it be wondered at that they encourage attendance against discretion? When every child who leaves

school thereby reduces the teacher's salary, can it cause surprise to find Elementary School teachers discouraging the transfer of their children to Secondary Schools?

The remedy for all these ills lies ready to hand.

Subsidies from the national exchequer are indispensable, but, instead of being peddled out at small rates for a variety of qualifications, the money should be paid *en bloc*; each district should receive a single block grant per annum, according to its population, to supply its educational needs both for Elementary and Secondary Schools. The amount should be generous enough to relieve the already overburdened ratepayer and should only carry with it as a condition of payment that the money be spent in a proper direction. The duties of Government inspectors would be restricted to the financial and administrative parts of an Education Committee's work, and by withholding the grant for inefficiency, as with the police grants, the Government would retain all the control they need; the purely educative part—the management of the schools, the appointment of teachers, the details of curricula, the carrying out of educational experiments, the general supervision of educational processes—would be entrusted wholly to the local committees, who may safely be relied upon to do what is best for their own people. The adoption of such a plan would

(*a*) Reduce the excessive and harassing labours attendant upon registration;

(*b*) Facilitate schemes for promoting the physical well-being of school children;

(*c*) Give greater liberty in school management, rendering possible greater specialisation where advisable to meet the peculiar needs of a district;

(*d*) Encourage development of new and better school methods;

(*e*) Remove the present pecuniary obstacles to the teacher's single-eyed devotion to the best interests of the children.

Much more might be added, but it will suffice to say that a block grant system would be widely welcomed as a relief from the present burdensome and worrying methods, and that it offers a prospect of such great improvements in so many directions as to be well worth a trial.

The second important reform is the readjustment of the curriculum, or it would perhaps be more exact to say the setting forth of a recognised curriculum for the early years of school life. The terms "elementary" and "secondary" as applied to education and to schools in this country have no well-defined, fixed meaning, as witness the following state-

ments made by various witnesses before the Royal Commission on Secondary Education.

(260.) "The teaching of the three R's, and all that may be considered as belonging to the three R's, should be made the province of elementary education, and the higher subjects should be separated as the province of what may be called secondary education."

(1429.) "Elementary education in a technical sense embraces all the subjects contained in the Education Code."

(1463.) "Such subjects as botany, animal physiology, chemistry and physics are all subjects of elementary education—to a restricted extent."

(1479.) "With regard to the seaside places on the east coast I should like every boy in an elementary school to learn German, and on the south coast to learn French. I should like to see every boy in a country district learning agriculture, and in a chemical neighbourhood learning chemistry."

(3834.) "In the elementary education the introduction of the beginnings of a higher education should be encouraged."

(10816.) "By 'primary' education I understand that minimum of education which the State requires that every citizen, male or female, should receive—very good reading, very good writing, and very good arithmetic, covering within those terms all that comes within the obligatory standards of the Education Department."

(11616.) "The definition of an elementary school in the Education Act is, a school in which the greater part of the education given is elementary education."

(17030.) "I do not draw the line between elementary education and secondary education in the type of the work, but rather in the thoroughness with which the work may be done."

It is obvious from the foregoing that while certain studies are regarded as pertaining to elementary education and others to secondary education it by no means follows that Elementary Schools are expected to be limited in their curricula to elementary studies. It is also certain that much elementary work is carried on in Secondary Schools.

Further, the three reports mentioned at the commencement of this chapter exhibit a very general consensus of opinion that secondary education should commence at or about the age of twelve years. With these facts as a base, and remembering the dissatisfaction felt at the quality of present-day elementary education, the following suggestions

are offered as a means of rationalising our educational system, simplifying its curricula, and improving its results.

The education proper for all children of average health and ability, whether rich or poor, whether in Elementary or in Secondary Schools, should be of the same character up to the age of twelve years, and might well be labelled *Primary* education.

Here it must be noted parenthetically that no hard and fast line should be drawn at any particular age for the purposes mentioned in this chapter; age limits are necessarily given to define periods, but variation in rate of development, prolonged enforced absence, and many other causes will often make it necessary or advisable to disregard them in special cases.

The course of work for the five years beyond scholastic infancy should include: Reading and Recitation; Spelling and Dictation; Composition, oral and written; Penmanship; Arithmetic; Grammar; Drawing; Constructive Work; Drill, Games, and Simple Lessons in Health; Singing, by ear and by the Tonic Sol-fa system.

To the above may be added, where conditions permit, one or more of the following: Simple studies of natural laws; Geography; Stories from English History.

The details of the curriculum should be left to the respective principal teachers, to whom wise Education Committees will allow the greatest freedom consistent with efficiency.

It is necessary to point out here that the most effective reform will depend upon the Education Committees and their inspectors, even if such a scheme as this be adopted. It is not merely the number of subjects that should be limited, but at the same time the extent to which those subjects are studied should be circumscribed. Old elementary school teachers will bear witness that from about 1881 onwards Government inspectors increased their demands year by year; tests in arithmetic approached more and more the character of mathematical puzzles, dictation exercises grew more difficult, reading examinations were more searching, grammar papers contained for analysis extracts whose import was quite beyond the intelligence of children, and so on. Even now that individual examination is abolished, inspectors have not relinquished their practice of posing children with carefully contrived "catches," and condemning the teaching as inefficient when the little ones are caught. This ill-advised policy must be abandoned. Neither the course of work nor the demands of examiners should exceed what can be compassed with ease by the average child. We want to substitute a policy of careful development of the physical

and mental powers of children for the bad old system of stuffing them with facts and training them in mental gymnastics. Thus, to suggest briefly:

Reading, recitation, spelling, and dictation should not exceed in difficulty what will be understood as an easy Standard 5.

Composition should be not a memory test but a series of simple exercises in the construction of sentences, and should unite with grammar in training to speak and write correctly.

Arithmetic should not go beyond exercises in money, weights and measures, practice, simple bills of parcels, H.C.F., L.C.M., and very easy vulgar fractions, and should neither necessitate calculations more lengthy or intricate than are common in actual practice outside school, nor present questions beyond the comprehension of an average child. The examples should be concrete rather than problematic, and puzzles should be *taboo*.

Penmanship should aim at the acquisition of a plain "hand"; neatness, legibility, and freedom are desirable, and such a style as would not tend to impair the sight or the nervous system, or in any way to injure the health.

Drawing with pencil, brush, and crayon should be "free," and be used as a training of hand, eye, sense of colour, appreciation of form and æsthetic taste.

Constructive work, at least as important as drawing, now practically neglected from seven years of age to twelve, must find a place in an ideal system. Woodwork is too heavy for children of tender years; such varieties of it as have been tried hitherto cannot be recommended Sewing is too trying both to the sight and to the nervous system to be advisable for girls in this grade, or at any rate before the age of ten. The kinds of work should be varied with the various years so as to avoid monotony, to promote more all-round development, and to secure for children growing in strength and dexterity exercises most suitable to their ability. Already a wide choice of work is available, such as paper-cutting, paper-weaving, raffia work, braiding, winding, knotting, simple weaving, cardboard work, cord work, basketry, clay modelling, and, for the older children, simple knife work and bent iron work. Whatever be the selection it ought to be such as a certificated class teacher could undertake; special teachers are not recommended for this grade.

Drill should be preferably of the Swedish type, and the games of such a character as to admit of considerable "abandon" on the part of the children. Dances of the old English type would be suitable. But most important in this connection are short, simple lessons on health.

Singing should be treated as mainly recreative, and no great ability in reading notation should be aimed at. The tonic sol-fa system supplies all that should be expected.

Scripture, or what is called "definite" moral instruction, or both, must find a place in any British school curriculum. Which should be adopted, how much should be done, and what time devoted thereto may be left to the local committees.

The foregoing presents what may fairly be expected in a five years' course, from seven to twelve years of age, and affords plenty of room for legitimate expansion within its limits. Where circumstances permit, it will be advisable to include one or more of the other three subjects, viz.:

Geography, say of the United Kingdom, its Colonies and Dependencies, Europe and the United States.

History, presented in story form, of the leading events, of the crises of history, of the development of British political and religious freedom, and of the great characters in British history, together with studies of the people at different periods as to their mode of life, social relations, habits, customs, etc.

Simple studies of natural laws, such as can be conducted by the class teachers themselves and are suited to the character of the school and its surroundings.

At the end of this Primary Course children should be examined either by their respective head teachers or by the local inspectors, or preferably by the local inspectors and a few representative head teachers acting in co-operation. The results of the examination would divide the scholars into three classes:

Class A.—Children who had passed very well.

Class B.—Children who had not passed well but whose work was not so bad as to forbid their removal from the Primary Grade.

Class C.—Children who needed further time in the Primary Grade.

Suitable certificates might be awarded to Classes A and B, and the former would be further informed that they were now eligible for transfer to a secondary school, either one of the old-established kind or one of the new kind known as "higher elementary." No other qualification for admission to a higher school should be demanded or recognised. If maintenance scholarships were offered, it would be quite feasible to make the awards on the results of the ordinary examination. This would go far towards eliminating the disastrous cramming for scholarship examinations, and if, as should be the case, the physical side of the school course received consideration as well as the mental, the best all-

round children would receive the distinction and rewards which now fall to the lot of those whose excellence is purely mental, gained at the expense of health and stamina.

No transfer should be made to a secondary school unless a reasonable guarantee could be obtained from the parent that the child would remain there for not less than three years.

Children of Class A who would not or could not proceed to a secondary school, and all children of Class B, would take a *Supplementary Course*, provided in the Elementary Schools in lieu of the present Standards 6 and 7. Space forbids full description of such a course beyond saying:

1st. That it should be organised to cover two years of progressive study.

2nd. That it would offer no additional subjects (except for pupil-teacher candidates who were unable to attend Secondary Schools).

3rd. That the time devoted to Constructive Work and the studies connected therewith would be largely increased, for boys in a direction suitable to the district, such as by Wood Work, Iron Work, and the like, so as to lay a foundation, without specialisation, for their future life's work, and for girls in the direction of domestic accomplishment by the introduction of Cookery, Needlework, Dressmaking, Laundry, Housewifery, Hygiene, Sick Nursing and the Management of Infants.

4th. That the other subjects should take colour and bias from the work adopted under the preceding paragraph.

The scheme thus outlined, although based upon practical acquaintance with elementary education, a long experience in Elementary Schools and an intimate knowledge of the weaknesses and incongruities of the educational policy pursued therein during the past thirty years, must not be regarded as an authoritative pronouncement of any body of teachers, but rather as the suggestion of one who longs to see children treated as human beings whose physical and spiritual development ought to receive at least as much attention as their mental growth, who holds that far too much has been expected of school children hitherto, who would abolish the iniquitous system of competitive examination for scholarships and other prizes, as productive of very much ill and very little, if any, lasting good, and who would have it remembered that, although children in the Primary Grade are receiving a fundamental preparation for their life's career, they are still "little ones," whose present happiness and future welfare largely depend upon their life at school.

ROBT. RACE.

CHAPTER II

THE REFORM OF THE PREPARATORY SCHOOL

EVERY weakness in which the Preparatory School system of to-day is open to criticism is traceable to the same cause. The primary fault lies in the manner in which these schools have sprung into existence. In a matter of such vital importance to the nation as education, the State has allowed individuals, blessed with a little capital, to take upon themselves the management of Preparatory Schools as their financial speculation in life. There are consequently a maximum of managers and a minimum of method, and (the worst feature of all) the very system that has thrown control of education into the hands of individuals has made it impossible for them to develop their schools on any progressive lines. Too many cooks have made a sad mess of the educational broth. This is no mere assertion. A glance at Preparatory Schools themselves will prove that the evils that have arisen from the system render the schools unsatisfactory to all concerned. The Headmaster is continually faced by the struggle for existence, for the supply of Preparatory Schools greatly exceeds the effective demand for them. He is driven to advertising his school by the gaining of scholarships, and has to sacrifice the dull and backward boy in the interests of the scholar. He finds himself tied to a limited curriculum, not only by the requirements of the Public School, but by the smallness of his staff. His masters are continually changing, as he cannot hold out any prospect of a career, even to a man whose help he values: for the school is the Headmaster's investment, and expenditure must be limited. A necessary corollary is that the position of the Assistant-master is a desperate one. He is condemned to an outlook from which substantial pecuniary advancement is rigorously excluded, and, so long as he remains in a Preparatory School, he must continue to pocket ambition and an absurdly small cheque. The parents too have cause for complaint. However carefully they may have chosen a school from the point of view of

health, they have no guarantee, owing to the narrowness of the curriculum and the lack of training in the teachers, either that their boy is being taught subjects suited to his capacity or that those subjects are being scientifically taught. And lastly, the boy himself is a victim of circumstances if his tastes and ability are not of the standard pattern. For whatever he is by nature, he is expected to conform to a type; and the monotony of work, of games, of ideal—all uncongenial to him—shows itself sooner or later in idleness and boredom. His school, to such a boy, becomes artificial and tiresome instead of being a real and living interest.

Reform of Preparatory Schools, then, falls naturally under three heads: reform of the management; reform of the status of the Assistant-master; reform of the curriculum. But as soon as a reformer becomes constructive, he is met by the *impasse* to which haphazard methods have led. It is, for instance, useless to insist on the training of teachers, though their work is admittedly difficult, especially in dealing with young boys, where bad teaching is particularly fatal; for Headmasters continue to employ untrained teachers straight from a Public School and University career, and are unable to put a premium on experience without deducting from their own profits. It is equally useless to press for greater elasticity in the curriculum, for Headmasters know that a policy would be suicidal which laid stress on subjects that are not valued at a Public School at the expense of those that are, and they can also justly plead the limitations, both in quantity and quality, of their staff. At every turn it becomes increasingly apparent that adequate reform cannot come from within and that the State must be asked to assume, however gradually, that authority which, in a matter of such import to the community, is its own by right. National control is a principle already applied to the education of the poor, and the extension of the principle to the governing classes is not only a logical conclusion, but becomes imperative when the possibilities of reform, to which national control would give scope, are fully realised.

As this chapter is only concerned with reform in Preparatory Schools, it must be assumed that changes have been introduced into Public Schools which have removed obstacles to development in Preparatory Schools themselves. No longer fettered by educational anomalies in the school above them, a reform of the Preparatory Schools' curriculum would become an immediate possibility. Every one who has studied a Preparatory School time-table must have been struck with the facts that far too much is expected of the juvenile brain, and that the Classics monopolise an undue share of school

hours at the expense of English subjects, while the study of Nature is practically ignored. It may be taken as generally true that at the age of eleven a boy is at work on three languages: Latin, French, and Greek, or German; is also giving an hour a day to Mathematics, and perhaps four or five hours a week to various English subjects. There are no doubt slight variations in allotment of time to subjects at different schools, but everywhere will be found not only the obstructive tendency of the traditional devotion to the Classical curriculum, but also (to quote the Warden of Bradfield, who is speaking of Public Schools), "a disposition to ignore the elemental fact that the powers and tastes of one individual differ, often fundamentally, from those of another, and that it is impossible to squeeze all and sundry through the narrow neck of one educational bottle." Yet this is exactly what the Preparatory School attempts. If the Preparatory School time-table has been thought out at all, and is not merely the victim of tradition, it must have been conceived on the assumption either that the linguistic capacity of *all* small boys is prodigious, or that a training in languages dead and languages living is eminently adapted to the few scholarly minds, and that the rest—well, the rest must get on as best they can. But whatever the assumption at the base, the result is only too patent: the vivacity of the nursery becomes the listlessness of the schoolroom, and the brightness of the child turns into the idleness and into what the Public Schools are too ready to call the "stupidity" of the schoolboy.

Manifestly then the curriculum must be made more elastic, and the number of languages taught must be reduced; the two facts to be faced are that boys are not constituted alike, and that the system of feeding them on a quantity of linguistic morsels which they do not and cannot digest is at the present moment the chief cause of the mental dyspepsia so common to the public and private schoolboy. It is interesting, in this connection, to recall that as long ago as November 1905 a committee of the Association of Preparatory Schools considered questions put by the Headmasters of Eton and Winchester, and reported "that if Greek were dropped in the upper forms of Preparatory Schools six and a half hours would be set free for other subjects," adding "that a high standard of Classics made a wide curriculum impossible in upper forms *for all the boys*." In other words, the view is expressed that Classics as a basis of education, for young boys at any rate, are an impediment to progress rather than an incentive. The basis of education should be English subjects, and foreign languages should be

added only with caution, always remembering the paramount importance of avoiding all confusion in the beginner's mind. Greek, valuable as it is to the scholarly mind, is the first language to be removed from the curriculum of a Preparatory School; it is essentially a subject for the Public School, and there only for the best brains of a particular type. When Greek is defended on the ground that it gives the best literary education, it is forgotten that it becomes a literature to the very few, and when it is defended as the best mental training it is not realised that, from this point of view, to teach Greek is merely to double the hours given to Latin, and to make it impossible to find adequate time for the mother-tongue, so pitiably neglected at the present moment. A boy's education at school should begin with English subjects, and to these, and to Mathematics, it should be restricted for five or six terms, stress being laid on English grammar, composition, and literature lessons adapted to the age of the pupil, and no effort being spared to encourage the reading of books out of school. History and Geography also have special claims to attention, for both are subjects that can be made favourites with small boys, when they are made to appeal to the imagination, and both lend themselves readily to a training in the study of cause and effect. Elementary Science, too, might early find a place in a curriculum relieved of the incubus of Latin and Greek, and it is highly desirable that the study of Nature should be thoroughly organised both in and out of school hours. Having so far confined education to a language from which confusion is least likely to arise, and to subjects that stimulate the thinking powers and the imagination, the next step could be taken by the introduction into the curriculum of French, as being the easiest language and the one nearest akin to English, taught, of course, as a living language to be spoken and written, and by men who talk it themselves. Finally, perhaps at the age of twelve, a boy could make a beginning of Latin, in cases where it was thought that a boy's powers made the introduction of another subject desirable, and that further sacrifice of English hours was justified—for time would already have been found from these hours for French. German, if it finds its way into a Preparatory School at all, can only be introduced as an alternative to Latin, or, if specially desired, to French. But the point on which particular emphasis must be laid is that the object of any reform in the curriculum must be to adapt the subject taught to the boy, not the boy to the subject, and that it is not intended that a boy shall begin a new subject at a given age unless he is fit to do so. The

only fixed rule is to have no fixed rule. The most advanced boy might well begin Latin before the age suggested in this paragraph, while the backward boy would in the end be better educated by dispensing with foreign languages altogether. One further change necessarily follows. With the abolition of specialisation in the Classics and the possibilities of cram, the modern Classical Scholarship into a Public School would die a natural and welcome death. Scholarships could then be awarded on the strength of a boy's general attainments, especially in English, and on his giving evidence that he had an intelligent grasp of the principles of what he had been taught and gave promise of future development; that he was thoughtful rather than crammed. It is impossible to leave this subject without expressing the hope that the emoluments of scholarships would be given only where necessitous circumstances justified it.

To make reform of the curriculum effective, much would have to be done to improve the teaching, and for this purpose it is essential that the teacher be trained, inspected, and properly paid, and he must teach only those subjects which he has been trained to teach. One of the drawbacks of the teaching profession, though it may sound a paradox, is that the teacher can at once begin to earn, and the result has been that many a man has been attracted to a Preparatory School only to find that his paper qualifications make it impossible for him to get promotion to a Public School, or that he is unsuited to his work, and that in any case, if he remains, his prospects in life are ruined. A master at a Preparatory School either uses his school as a means of gaining experience, in the hope of leaving as soon as he can, or is driven to give up schoolmastering altogether. It is small wonder that the level of teaching is poor. Were there one central board of control instead of a multitude of Headmasters, compelled to place personal interests before all others, the remedy would be easy to prescribe. The Assistant-master would be a Civil Servant. He would have to pass through a period of training and be certificated before he could take up a Government post, and, further, would be a probationer, preferably unpaid, at whatever school he became a master, for at least a year. It would be difficult to become a schoolmaster; it would take time; and if the training were sound and subsequent inspection thorough, the schoolmaster of the future would have a knowledge of the principles and aims of education, and be anxious to remain in his profession. But teaching in Preparatory Schools must be made an end in itself, not, as it is to-day,

a means to an end. It must be a career in which permanence and security of tenure are guaranteed. Salaries must rise in proportion to length of service; headmasterships—little more than senior assistant-masterships—must be open to ability and not to purchase, and pensions must be on the scale of those of other Civil Services. The aim will be to attract the best men and to keep them.

With change of control, other and more far-reaching reforms could be carried out. At present there are far too many Preparatory Schools, and they are too small, and education generally would gain by a diminution in their numbers and an increase in their size. With larger schools and a larger staff the curriculum could be infinitely more varied, and, where the site allowed, a much greater variety than is now possible could be introduced into a boy's hours of play. Cricket and football would always remain for those who wished to play them, but they need not be compulsory. Any occupation in the open air should be allowed, and with an increased staff there would be room for trained experts in other outdoor pursuits. It is far better for a boy to spend his spare hours agreeably in whatever healthy form of exercise may appeal to him than to be driven daily to play (and still worse to watch) a game that to him is little more than a dreary routine. With larger schools, too, the fees could be considerably reduced. The absurdly high fees at present charged at preparatory boarding schools make admission possible only for the sons of the comparatively wealthy, and the owners of these schools are fostering, perhaps unconsciously, all the prejudices of class distinctions—distinctions which are based, so far as the school is concerned, on money qualifications, for all who can pay the fees are admitted—and are making it increasingly difficult to approximate to equality of opportunity, an ideal always dominant in any scheme of reform which aims at giving the best education to the best brains, regardless of other considerations. In the realisation of this ideal, gradual as it would doubtless have to be, the Preparatory School would be of the utmost service, for the young boy is usually free from class prejudice, and it would be easier to develop a genuinely national system out of the class system of to-day, in the school where education begins. Such a system of education is of course not new: it is the custom of Grammar Schools and of High Schools for Girls throughout the country, and it is the rule in France and Germany. But with this change must come the change from boarding to day schools, for home life is the centre of moral education as school life is of intellectual. Not only

would a day-school system make a further reduction of fees possible, but it would give relief to masters and boys from the narrowness of interest and exclusiveness with which the boarding schools may fairly be charged, while it would also give less opportunity to a boy, whose home is ill-disciplined, of bringing moral infection to the rest. To herd a number of boys together for thirty-eight weeks in the year, and to remove them from the influences of life at home, is to subject them to an existence that is artificial and remote from the conditions of actual life. The reason generally given for sending a boy away from home, where it is not a reason of health or a frank avowal that the boy is a nuisance, is that it is vaguely felt that life at a boarding school "will make more of a man of him." But can it be seriously urged that a boy who has been educated at a private day school, and, let us say, Westminster or Cheltenham, becomes any less fitted to face the world—any less of a man? Surely such a boy has gained what his school can give him, both intellectually and morally, *plus* all the advantages of a normal life at home. In cases where it is imperative for reasons of health that a boy be sent to the sea, it would still be better for him to attend a day school, and to live with a married master or with people willing to occupy themselves with the charge of a few boys.

The reforms that have been advocated aim, for the boy, at giving wider scope to individual attainments by introducing a greater variety into his work, games, and life; for the master, at making him more efficient, and at securing the permanence of his position; for the school, at making it a real centre of education, concerned with the interests of the community—at removing bigotry from its atmosphere, narrowness from its ideals. Such developments, however, are impossible under the present system. The financial exigences alone of the Headmaster's position are a hopeless barrier to progress, even along lines where Headmasters are most likely to agree with these suggestions. The necessary conclusion is that reform cannot come from within. The hope lies in authority from without, and, though the beginnings may be small, though inspection may at first be considered enough to guarantee an efficient curriculum, though grants from the State may be advised on condition that masters are better paid, yet such beginnings can only be the forecast of a time when the State is prepared to go back upon its original blunder in having allowed the education of its youth to become a matter for individual enterprise.

B. WOOD HILL.
A. H. HALES.

CHAPTER III

THE REFORM OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOL

A. **Preliminary.**—In the multitude of diagnoses may perhaps be found proof of the severity of the disease. But it is complained of specialists that they are too apt to sacrifice a comprehensive survey to the study of details. In the case of English Secondary Education the complaint is literally justified. Reformers abound; but they are far too afraid of the large hypotheses. I shall hardly expose myself to the same accusation in laying down as the root evil in English Education its divorce from life. The subject is large, and capable of extended treatment. But as my task is to suggest rather than to be exhaustive, I will illustrate my meaning by points few but important.

(1) In most Public Schools the Assistant-masters lead a life which is essentially monastic. Marriage is possible for but few, and for them comparatively late in their career, and in spite rather than because of the action of their employers. The management of a house, practical acquaintance with the most ordinary social duties and responsibilities, the delights and despairs of fatherhood—these and most other features of a man's normal life are therefore denied to them. The consequent dangers and losses to the master's mind and character can readily be inferred; but how great also must be the loss to his pupils in direct teaching and example, not to speak of that more intangible thing called atmosphere! There are of course the holidays; but here experience has justified a famous wit's exclamation: "The Schoolmaster is abroad, and would to God he would remain there!" Nor does it seem in any way rational to expect great results from protracted paddling in alien backwaters, varied with periodical returns to that main stream to which he is perforce an equal stranger.

(2) I have used the term "backwaters" of deliberate purpose. For it does, I think, suggest the forgotten defect of

the country isolation of too many Public Schools. I am not blind to the reasons that account for this isolation. I can see the Headmaster hold up hands of horror who should nowadays be asked to undertake the responsibility of a large Boarding School planted in the heart of a great city. I sympathise utterly with the feelings that inspired the removal of Charterhouse and Christ's Hospital to their respective downs and woods. But the possibility of greater intelligence in those who should control the growth of cities, and a less slavish acceptance of the boarding-school tradition bequeathed to us by Thring and Arnold, make such instances special rather than typical; while they only deepen the certainty of the defect which I wish here to emphasise, I mean that cloistral seclusion from the main stream of human life, to which isolation in the most ideal of parks or on the breeziest of downs condemns a school inevitably.

(3) For though the masters gain in control, and the boys in health, they are both thrown emphatically out of normal relations by their barrack existence. Of the masters I have spoken already. Of the boys it must not be forgotten that they are removed from home influences at confessedly the most impressionable age, and thrown into hourly relationship with an army of equally immature and impressionable fellows. Admirable as this may be from the point of view of friendships and amusements, for education it is a loss. The informal contact of boys with maturer minds that is the rule in the home is the exception in the school; the exception therefore the consequent sharpening of wit.

(4) But it is in the course of studies prescribed, and until quite recently prescribed with a Procrustean thoroughness, that the Public School has been most obviously remote from life. I refer not only to the long battle over "the humanities," but also to the fatal want of elasticity. Public Schools pride themselves on their traditions; those that are not ancient in years manufacture the modern-antique; but I believe that for any place that is to diffuse a living light the last thing to form is a tradition. Traditions, like vested interests, act as a clog upon the future: there is only one tradition, fine life and its development. For half a century and more schoolmasters have made their paramount aim the formation of character. But it has been a character of a uniform type, often as artificial as a schoolboy's slang. The influence of the mind upon character, the certainty that there can be no universal recipe, and that to impose a uniform is to cramp a soul—these considerations have been disregarded in the

determination to produce Christian gentlemen of the pattern of Uppingham and Rugby.

(5) And even when the schoolmaster is awake, not only to the importance of mind, but also to the bent of some particular mind, he is handicapped in dealing with it by two great obstacles. Either the parents of the boy in question discountenance his tastes in the determination that he shall not depart from the normal pattern in profession any more than in clothes or accent; or else—and this is now the more common obstacle—the school, from building-mania, poverty, blindness, or neglect, has not the facilities for satisfying and training the tastes discovered. Thus at A there may be an Engineering Side, at B the elements of an Agricultural Side, at C first-rate Modern-Language Teaching, at D a Drawing School well equipped and well served; but at no Public School is it possible to find all four. For this we have to turn to what are regarded as "crank" institutions, though the principal crank that they seem to display is a progressive intelligence. And so the inevitable result for the Public School boy is that he is warped from his natural tastes into the regulation shape—warped, that is, from life.

B. **Suggested Reforms.**—I. *State Control.*—I place this first because it is in this direction that the tide of modern life is undoubtedly setting, and because of the clear benefits to which it must lead—benefits, however, which I shall state rather than discuss, because I believe that they are to be considered at greater length elsewhere in this book and by other writers.

(*a*) The first beneficial result that I foresee from the establishment of State Control is the co-ordination of work, and the power of adapting the school course to changing needs. For this we rely at present on the technical knowledge, organising ability, energy, and progressiveness of the Headmaster. These are bound to be variable factors, and will never be present in every Public School in the same degree and at the same time. State Control would ensure this universality, and in an economical way.

(*b*) From State Control of Public School Finance it would follow that the money would be spent, if on buildings, then in accordance with the greatest educational need, not for advertisement and parade; if on salaries, then with no lack of consideration or flagrant disproportion.

(*c*) All the staff would become Civil Servants. The effect of this on the Headmaster would be twofold. He would be deprived of an imposing autocracy (for he is but nominally

responsible to a council ignorant perhaps of education in general or of the special needs of their own particular school), and would be constituted a high official directly responsible to Government. So much for his status. In his work he would be free to spend his energies, not on puff, curriculum-framing, or building programmes, but on a personal knowledge of really educational questions and of the efficiency of his school. We might then hope to see an intelligent solution of many questions of administration. Examinations are now in a measure the Headmaster's short cut to personal supervision and his rough guarantee of teaching efficiency. That is why they are often so frequent as to be flagrant instances of pulling up the plant to see how it is growing. But give the Headmaster the time and the stimulus to consider a subject that experience has forced on the consideration of many an assistant, and we may yet hope to see a year's course of study and one yearly examination at the most. Again, the numbers in classes, though much smaller than was once the case, are still too large for efficient individual attention; and the masters have far too little leisure, and far too little understanding how to use that leisure well. Nor is the length of a lesson carefully proportioned to the age and strength of the pupil. Headmasters—of Boarding Schools, at any rate—are over-careful to fill every moment of a boy's time; for them absence of task-work or task-play is the devil's opportunity; they forget that there is an opportunity far more devilish in over-strain.

(*d*) The status of Assistant-masters would be enormously improved. Socially they would at last possess a dignified standing. Professionally they might expect security of tenure; the right of appeal; a fair wage with regular "rises"; a seniority based on the time actively spent in the profession, not at some one particular school; a better chance of promotion; transference (if more suited to that branch of the profession) to the Education Office or the Body of Inspectors; and finally, a pension. And of them in turn it would be expected that each should systematically prepare his lessons; that he should be awake to the progress made, not only in the subjects that he professes, but in the general life and thought of the times; and that he should consider himself, not merely a salaried official with the comfortable prospect of a pension, but a responsible, intelligent, thoughtful citizen.

(*e*) The State would have more opportunity of finding out who should be appointed Inspectors or Government officials. The schoolmaster with a gift for organisation, or for theory,

but without the teaching power, could be drafted out of the school for which he is not fitted into the office for which he is. This would have a two-edged consequence. It would provide the master with an additional opportunity for using his powers; it would also make it more possible to fill the Education Office with men who understand and love their subject.

II. *Democratisation of School Government.*—(*a*) I have suggested that one result of State Control would be to deprive the Headmaster of his autocracy by making him really responsible to an educational body. But he must also be deprived of his autocracy in relation to his assistants. Socially most Headmasters have found their ancient isolation Hyperborean rather than Olympian. But the gulf between them and their assistants is still far too large in respect of salary and of voice in the educational interest of the school. I shall deal with the latter question in speaking of Masters' Meetings, but as to salaries I may say that only the high-and-dry Tory will maintain that "surplus of ability" is fairly expressed by the prevalent relation of at least 6 to 1. What I suggest, therefore, is that the Headmaster should be much more *primus inter pares* than the autocrat, benevolent or domineering according to temperament or digestion; and that of the money that is ear-marked for salaries his share shall be the lion's, not the cormorant's.

(*b*) The reform of the Masters' Meeting is to my mind supremely important, but it is only possible after the redress of the differences pointed out in the last paragraph. Unless men feel that they have a genuine equality, and that the frank expression of their opinion will not be used as a lever for getting rid of them, you may give them freedom of speech but it will be a gift as idle as the Consulship under a Domitian, and perhaps as dangerous. Many a Headmaster has acted on the advice given by Cæsar to Cleopatra in Bernard Shaw's historical extravaganza, "Let your women talk: and you will learn from them what they are." But granted a real equality and a real freedom of speech, there must also be questions of genuine importance and worthy of a man's discussion. I have myself attended over a hundred Masters' Meetings, and never once has there been an Agenda Paper, and but rarely has any one known even informally a single question that was to be the subject of special discussion. The inevitable result of such a lack of system must be unconsidered ejaculations, scamped or postponed issues (and postponement often means disappearance), or the discussion only

of puerilities.[1] Add to this that a question is never put to the vote—that might create a difficulty under an autocracy—and it will be evident that the Assistant-master, even if he have freedom of speech, has no real voice; even if he engage in discussion, can never see a definite end to that discussion unless it come in the form of a ukase from the Headmaster. I suggest then that Masters' Meetings should be properly organised, that there should be real equality and real freedom of speech, and that each question should be put to the vote and action taken in accordance with that vote.

From this would follow a more real unity among the staff. To-day Masters are suspected, if not accused, of disloyalty if they are not enthusiastic in carrying out regulations in the framing of which they have had neither a share nor even the satisfaction of being out-voted after a real expression of opinion. But the decisions of a meeting such as I have described would indisputably be the decisions of the majority and would be treated as such like any Parliamentary decision, however much the minority might afterwards seek to alter them.[2]

(*c*) And the staff regarded as a whole would be in direct communication with the State. There would no longer be the present shadowy relationship between the Headmaster and his Governing Body, but he would deal with the Central Authority as the mouthpiece of his staff. And that Authority would have documentary evidence in the Headmaster's report of the expert feeling in his particular centre, while the figures of the divisions would show them its proportions.

(*d*) I must add a word on the government of boys by boys. The prefectorial system at Public Schools has come to be regarded as a fetish. Any one who ventures to criticise it must at once expect stopped ears and frowning looks. And without doubt, where the material is first-rate or a wholesome feeling strong, the system has much to commend it. A sense

[1] Mr. Coulton in his book on *Public Schools and Public Needs* wrote of the Headmasters in Conference: "They have found time to discuss Music, Voice-cultivation, Boxing at Aldershot, Hymns and Tunes for School Chapels," but I state without fear of contradiction that at most Masters' Meetings the last named is the only one of these subjects even that has been submitted to assistants for discussion; the date of the holidays, the advantage of copy-books as a means of punishment, the best way of holding a roll-call, are the most important on which they are thought competent to express an opinion.

[2] Throughout the argument above I am assuming that the Assistant-masters of the future will show themselves more alive to the problems of their profession than has been the case in the past. Compulsory training, registration, etc., will produce a type of schoolmaster at present unapproachable.

of responsibility is engendered, a power of initiative, a habit of command. But this ideal is too rarely realised. The position is valued for its privileges rather than its duties; the administration of justice is summary; its preliminary inquiry (especially in the smaller schools) biassed. Instead of the sense of responsibility is developed a pride of place; instead of initiative an unfettered caprice; instead of the habit of command the tendency to bully or to domineer. And the right to beat, that, to my mind, degrades both its possessor and its object, is never more illogical than here. Theoretically the checks are supposed to preclude abuse; in practice any one who has been behind the scenes and is honest will confess that spite or contempt can still be satisfied, charges manufactured or glossed, and the confidence of House-masters and Headmasters abused. And there remains the glaring absurdity that the power that is allowed to the boys is denied to the master. It is difficult, I admit, to devise a remedy that shall rob prefectorial authority of its terrors without making it ineffective. In fact I do not believe it possible, except after such lapse of time as shall have accustomed the new generations to the altered code. But, cost what it may in the meanwhile, the right to cane should be denied at once; and the right of appeal to higher authority on the part of the accused not only recognised, but so encouraged as to become normal.

III. *Democratisation of the School and its Curriculum.*—(*a*) This democratic reconstitution of the government of Public Schools should be followed by a recasting of the school as a whole and on similar lines.

(1) At present there is far too much of a caste system; nor is that fact rendered less but more odious when the basis of caste is conformity to a religious faith, or wealth rather than birth. The barrier between class and class, with the consequent failure to understand and sympathise with one another that is so disastrous a feature in the social and political life of any nation, is definitely taught at Public Schools. Class separation, tempered by occasional contributions to charitable objects and school missions, is a poor substitute for that interpenetration of class by class which, beginning in the schools, might do so much to improve the spirit of national life. From this would follow two results of varying importance.

(2) The expense of the education given would have to be reduced to normal proportions. This would be possible with the expenditure under State Control, and the eventual return of the Public Schools to the position of local centres.

(3) The system of entrance scholarships would have to be

reformed altogether. As a fact many scholarships at Public Schools are obtained either by those who do not deserve them or by those who are not in need of them. But the only just and honourable basis of election is one of poverty and merit. The clever and ambitious sons of rich parents might still obtain the honour without the emoluments. Thus the number and quality of the scholars would be vastly increased, and the reaction of this upon the standard of the Public Schools would be most salutary. There should also be a readjustment of the proportion of scholarships offered for ability in special subjects; unless—a much more desirable consummation—all scholarships were given on the Rhodes pattern for general proficiency: it is too early to allow boys to specialise before the age of fourteen.

(*b*) To the Reform of the School Course in order to suit the tastes and capacities of a larger number of boys I have already referred. But I must reiterate the point not only for emphasis (though that is important), but also because the democratisation, or, to use a less formidable phrase, the broadening of the basis, is here a crying necessity. Prof. Sadler once remarked that "the German aptitude for commerce is a by-product of their school-system." I foresee a number of similar by-products as a result of the substitution of a really liberal education for a sheepish observance of outworn traditions. Nor must a school be equipped for the development of indoor interests alone. The whole conception of school games must be no less widened. I have had an opportunity of developing this subject in another article, and will therefore content myself now with the suggestion that all outdoor pursuits should be included under the head of Games. The old system could be retained so far as was thought necessary for moral or disciplinary reasons. But after all, the object of Public School games is to produce a nation not of prize athletes but of those who are physically fit. It should not be difficult to secure this while including an interest in Nature and a knowledge of her works and man's control of them.

C. **Envoi.**—All through my essay I have kept steadily before me the two ideals which, I feel sure, are the guiding stars to any true reform. And these I wish now to state by way of summary:

(i) The first is the return of the Public Schools to the position that they were once intended to hold, and that some of them (Shrewsbury and Rugby, for example) once did hold. They must become local centres, not expensive exotics. Only in this way (for the natural and therefore

scientific process is from the familiar to the unfamiliar) can they be planted in the life and responsive to the needs of the nation. Only in this way can the parent take his proper place in the training of his children, and the school build up a genuine and healthy patriotism. The cry is the same whichever way we turn. What is desired in the Drama, the Army, and Agriculture alike (to take widely different spheres) is local effort, local rivalry for what is best. The Central Authority should secure for all an equal chance of success; but the measure in which that success is attained will still vary, as with the individual so with the locality. On the other hand, the general level of success should be vastly higher.

(ii) The second is to work consistently towards a National System of Education, graduated from the Preparatory School right up to the University. In England, "an old country," as reformers are always reminded, and the home of vested interests, there are giant prejudices to overcome—against equality of opportunity; in favour of caste schools, caste professions, caste residences, and even caste churches; in favour of expensive, unregulated, individual efforts; against the more economical, united working of a well-thought-out and scientific scheme. But, as Benjamin Kidd has recalled to us, the future is to the nation that has the strongest grip of "the long sequences." And at the bottom of everything lies Education. Are we there to miss the long sequences because of a faith that the chaos of uncontrolled individual enterprises secures an elasticity and a power of experiment for which a National System would substitute a hard-and-fast uniformity? There are two assumptions here. It has never been proved that there is any real elasticity, or even desire to experiment, in Public Schools as at present constituted. Nor could there be lifeless uniformity with a reformed Education Office and a people awake to the importance of a national education, not only adaptable but continually adapted to the needs of the times as they alter.

H. LIONEL ROGERS.

CHAPTER IV

THE REFORM OF THE UNIVERSITIES

AT the present time our English Universities fall into two classes: (1) the two ancient Universities, drawing their pupils from every part of the country and submitting them to the traditional influences of an education which involves residence and may sometimes include learning; (2) the many local or municipal Universities which have sprung to life during the last generation, almost entirely non-residential, frequented for the most part by students from their own district, making it their chief aim to impart the instruction which the complexity of modern life imperatively demands. The problems offered by these two types are naturally different, though their solution may ultimately prove identical, since, after all, there can be only one best way to attain a given end. Still, the fact remains that for the time being English University life has two very distinct connotations, though not necessarily two disparate ideals. We may, perhaps, most fitly consider the shortcomings and advantages of either or both types after asking ourselves what, in the judgment of other countries, is the purpose and essence of a University and of University instruction.

To such a question, we may affirm, Europe and America have given a common answer. A University is a corporation of Faculties which provides superior or tertiary instruction for students who have qualified by a secondary education to receive it, and which cultivates both in teachers and learners a spirit of original and scientific research. A University exists not only to impart higher knowledge, but concurrently to advance the bounds of knowledge, and in so far as it falls short of this double ideal it fails to fulfil its proper function. The holding of examinations and the granting of degrees are of the nature of *accidents*, rather than essential (as the old University of London would have had the public believe). The purpose of a University is to teach, not to test, and so

to teach that its students may reverence Truth and apply method to its discovery. Finally, Germany and America unite with Oxford and Cambridge in claiming that a University should be more than an intellectual guide to her sons. If she must lead to right knowing, she should also inspire to generous living; in her genial atmosphere the whole nature of youth should be expanded, its impulses directed, and its interests broadened. She should produce philosophers, but as a by-product, when making citizens.

First and foremost, then, a University is to give *tertiary*, not secondary, instruction. The "good general education" to which even our sturdy Oxford reformers cling is the business not of the University but of the School. It is true that such an education is the only solid basis for superior, specialised teaching; it is also true that it has only been acquired to-day by a small minority before University life is begun. But the remedy lies, not in the University doing school-work, but in her insisting that this preliminary all-round education shall have been received by all candidates for admission. It seems to be forgotten that till the eighteenth century boys went up to Oxford and Cambridge much younger than to-day, and that they therefore received at the University the same training that we give in our Public Schools. We have, whether rightly or wrongly, accepted eighteen or nineteen as the proper age for "going up," and yet we keep our main degree courses preparatory to those post-graduate studies which are rarely attempted because they are never encouraged. The Greeks, it is true, were always children, but then they despised business, and achieved no conspicuous success in empire; moreover, this childishness of theirs was an elfish grace that prettily marred the whole of life, not an artificial postponement of maturity. We English, who are hardly modern Athenians, are contentedly fostering a childishness that is far from being artistic, and keep the mind in leading-strings when the body has long reached manhood. The Grammar and Rhetoric of the old Arts *trivium* have already engaged ten years of our mental activity when we leave school, and France and Germany recognise the completion of the secondary course by then granting the Bachelor's degree or its equivalent. Our English youth, instead of entering upon a training that stimulates through differing in *kind* (not necessarily in subject) from his previous studies, is doomed to plough again the same field for another three or four years, until, with every yard of the delectable country which should have been his heritage still unexplored, he is forced at last to leave the University, wistfully ignorant

or emptily arrogant, a sadder but not a wiser man than when he entered it.

In saying this I am referring, of course, rather to the Pass or Poll man than to the student who takes high honours in *Literæ Humaniores* or the History Tripos. In both these schools such an one will have learnt much that is new and valuable. He will have had his critical faculties trained to perfection, and by regular essay-writing have gained some small facility in self-expression. But he will have been scared by the examination bogy from all attempt to find, or even think, out something for himself, and will be in no small danger of becoming an unconscious sophist who lives in a world of loose abstractions and adjusted facts. In any case such a product is not typical of our older Universities to-day. Their peculiar *fauna* is rather the illiterate representative of our governing classes who, after being crammed for two years in the verbal meaning of a few Greek and Latin text-books, manages to satisfy the pitifully small requirements of Matriculation, and enters gaily upon a three or four years' career of expensive idleness, broken by periodical tests which demand a minimum of application and absolutely discourage thought. The golden youth, we are told, is learning much—rowing or rowdiness or luncheon-giving—that is so much more valuable than book-knowledge, and must on no account be debarred from following the primrose paths of his ancestral education. But it is hard to discover any vestige of claim that such a butterfly can make to have part or lot in institutions which pious benefactors endowed for *learning*, and for the learning of poor men: and if he is to be educated on the paternal pattern, we had better revive the drinking and the gambling too. The Pass man may be an excellent fellow, and certainly he merits our pity as the result of a mishandled schooling. But in a University he has no place, no claim, and no right. The older Universities have been long enough degraded and throttled by the patronage of the ignorant rich. Studies that would ill become a boy of seventeen disgrace the man of twenty-three, and it is impossible that half the teaching capacity of the University can much longer be given up to the spoon-feeding of intellectual cripples. The object of a University is to encourage advanced and disinterested study: her sole criterion is educational efficiency. The basis of her corporate life must be intellect: first things must be first. Corporate life with the brains left out is an ideal to be developed by our governing classes on some remote island at their own expense. It must cease to be tacitly recognised and protected by the Universities and the Army.

The duty of the University, then, is to give superior instruction to all students who can profit by it and to keep her door shut to those who cannot, whatever their wealth and political influence. The test of "ripeness" for University study will be ability to pass the Leaving-Certificate that the University to which admission is sought will have granted in conjunction with the State authorities, and which will be issued on proof of a boy's having satisfactorily completed a definite course of liberal training. Such a course will generally include Latin, and will always include English literature and English history, and the older Universities at least might well make Greek a qualification for enrolment by a Faculty of Letters, on the ground that if Greek is not learnt at school it will be learnt nowhere, and that no literary education which aims at thoroughness can afford to forego a first-hand knowledge of this superb inspirer of style and thought. "Greek is like lace: we get as much of it as we can." For scientists, German should be considered equally indispensable, and all candidates would prove some acquaintance with Mathematics and Natural Science. With such credentials a "good general education" would be sufficiently safeguarded, and when the student had once matriculated he should be allowed to follow his bent without let or hindrance on this score. He should find in whatever Faculty he joined the best and most modern teaching the country can furnish, and should begin to attack his chosen subject in a scientific spirit. The choice afforded him should be great, and the combinations unlimited, provided they were educationally equivalent. The Literary Schools or Triposes might well be divided into courses lasting three years, with a Moderations or First Part examination at the end of the first year in the purely "belletristic" aspect of two languages, while the next two years, on the analogy of the Oxford "Greats," could be devoted to the historical and philosophical writings they contained. A man could then read, should he desire it, Classical Moderations and Modern Language Finals, or the reverse; or English with a severer standard of attainment, could be substituted for both. All such courses would lead to the degree of Bachelor of Arts, and in all alike some small piece of original work would be included. Similarly a student could qualify for Bachelor's degrees in Mathematics or Science, such schools as Forestry or Mining being open only after Science Moderations had been taken. Diploma subjects like Geography, Commerce, and Politics could be extended and combined so as to lead to a degree, and, though certain courses of lectures should be prescribed, no obstacle should be put in the way of

a brilliant student taking the examinations earlier than was normal, and to this end each examination might be held twice every year, every student being allowed one failure, and being sent down *by the University* on failing twice in the same test. But all examinations should be given their proper place as necessary evils, instead of usurping the chief throne in the academic system, and there should be no more of the silly intercollegiate rivalry for honours which at present makes real study impossible both for teacher and learner. The mention "*très bien*" in France, or "*summa cum laude*" in Germany, receives the minor glory that it merits: it is not worn, like an English "first," as a crowning feather for a lifetime. Abroad it is the subject which excites interest, not the labels of proficiency.

With a degree course beginning preferably at eighteen and ending at twenty-one, it should at last be possible to make post-graduate study a reality. Theology, Letters, and perhaps Law would be open only to graduates in Arts, just as Medicine would be taken only by Bachelors of Science. Degrees in Higher Faculties would be given after two years' specialised work at any University, and the title of Master, whether of Arts, Mathematics, or Science, could again be reserved for future teachers, whether in schools or Faculties, who had added to their Bachelor's diploma a knowledge of educational theory in general and some practical experience in teaching their own subject. After taking his Bachelor's degree it should be possible for a future schoolmaster to qualify concurrently, say, for a Bachelorship in Letters by research in some department of literature, and for the title of Master through study of the science and art of Education. The details of all these courses are immaterial and can be settled in a variety of ways. The important thing is to secure for all students a line of study adapted to their tastes and, as far as possible, to their intended profession, and by capable direction to make every line of study at once evocative of initiative and originality, and educational through the discipline of scientific method. In every Faculty, but more especially in post-graduate instruction, there should be a combination of stimulating lectures and of *Seminar* work, in which each student, under expert guidance, himself weighs evidence and conducts some small branch of inquiry. It is by insistence on, and development of, such a system that German Universities have become the recognised home of science as applied to every department of knowledge.

In order to realise these ends and restore the older Universities to their former position of seats of learning,

renowned *for learning* throughout Europe, more trenchant reforms are necessary than even the abolition of Pass men and of the sale of indulgences in the shape of M.A. degrees. The Colleges, which were originally charitable hostels for poor scholars but have now become rival educational establishments, each with its staff of tutors and its flock of wealthy barbarians, each a powerful centre of vested interests and venerable abuses, must be made to revert to their former position of dependence upon the University. Between them the Oxford Colleges enjoy an annual income of £350,000, while Oxford University in its own right boasts a yearly revenue of £7,600. The University, in spite of recent efforts, remains a shadowy abstraction, without control over the teaching or a voice in the distribution of College funds. This must be altered, and the Boards of Faculties raised to independence, and their staff of teachers must be given a free hand. Every don in the University, *quâ* teacher, should be appointed by, and work under the direction of, his Board of Faculty, though *quâ* tutor he may well remain under the jurisdiction of his College. There would then be no absurd overlapping or lecturing to empty benches: the instruction would be distributed so as to make the most, and not the least, of the intellectual resources of the place. The maintenance of this University teaching staff would be divided among the Colleges according to their financial ability, and a University pension fund would have an equal claim upon College revenues. In order to secure economical administration, a Financial Board of experts would audit and control all accounts, whether of University or College.

The object of all sane stewardship of educational endowments is to secure (1) that the best teachers are doing their proper work and are properly paid for doing it; (2) that as many students as are qualified shall be attracted to take advantage of this teaching, and, in the case of necessitous ability, maintained by public funds, bequeathed for this purpose, while they are being taught. At present our older Universities attain neither of these ends. The average stipend of the Cambridge teacher is, it appears, £250, and at Oxford it cannot be more than £400. Half the teaching is devoted to cramming the scions of our plutocracy with a minimum of rudimentary knowledge. A third of the endowments are swallowed up by buying "scholars," whether they need the purchase money or not. For the poor man, life is made unnecessarily hard by allowing the wealthy loungers to raise the expense of living, until board, lodging, and tuition cost £150 for only six months of the year. The

Colleges, thanks to the Second Commissioners, spend £1,400 on every Prize Fellow, and yet make no stipulation that the emoluments shall be devoted to the prosecution of research. In every direction abuse still stalks unblushing, and the greatest of our national endowments for the advancement of learning are still cynically squandered in maintaining a system which, in a great measure, puts learning outside the reach of the poor and beyond the ambition of the rich.

At the needful reforms we can only hint in a brief summary, adopting and endorsing every word of the band of Oxford tutors who, from first-hand knowledge of the problem in all its bearings, testify both to the efficacy and to the necessity of the following changes: (1) Prize Fellowships should be made conditional on research, and the number of Research Fellows greatly increased, while a liberal provision of senior scholarships and exhibitions should encourage men to take up post-graduate work in a Higher Faculty. (2) Official College Fellowships should, with a few exceptions for men wholly engaged in College administration, be applied to the maintenance of University Professors, Lecturers, and Readers, responsible to Faculties and appointed by them. (3) Such Fellows as were Lecturers and Readers could, at the same time, be College tutors, thus retaining for our Universities the best feature of the Oxford tradition. Pupil and tutor should, as far as possible, be students of the same subject, the moral bond being reinforced by the intellectual. (4) All scholarships should be awarded by the University (preferably, for distinction in the School Leaving-Certificate, on the lines of the present practice of the Joint Matriculation Board of the four Northern Universities). No scholarship should carry with it any emolument. (5) The money now given in scholarships should be awarded by the Colleges in exhibitions to assist poor men, scholars in the first instance and afterwards other undergraduates, the amount given being kept secret and accurately adjusted to the needs of the recipient. (6) In order to bring the Colleges into touch with the Grammar Schools and County Schools of the country, exhibitions should be established in each College, to which only boys who had completed their studies in the schools of some definite district should be eligible. (7) Special exhibitions should be established to enable teachers in Elementary and poorer Secondary Schools to get a University training, the first duty of a University being to educate teachers, to provide "masters" in more than an archaic sense of the term. (8) All students must be admitted and presented for registration not, as Laud has

made customary, by a College, but by a Board of Faculty, which shall also exact and receive all fees for Faculty instruction. A non-collegiate system could thus be made a reality; and such a system, together with the withdrawal of the indolent rich, would perforce reduce the cost of living "in college," if the Colleges mean to survive. And when bursars co-operate to buy scientifically and sell cheaply, landladies and tradesmen in turn will lower their charges. It will perhaps one day become not only possible but "good tone" to live plainly and think highly. If bursars believe all reduction impossible, they might hand over their task to an undergraduate house-committee. Since economy succeeds better when encouraged than when imposed, such delegation would, in any case, be wise.

Having, all too briefly, discussed the changes which are imperative in the teaching of our older Universities and in the application of their present resources, it remains for me to touch on the reform which just now chiefly engages the interest of the nation, the reform of University Constitutions. The present system admits of no defence. The theoretical government is vested at Oxford in Convocation, at Cambridge in the Senate, bodies of Doctors and Masters, in which to-day the vote of non-resident parsons who have kept their names on the books successfully baulks all attempts at improvement made by the men on the spot, who are presumably considered incapable of understanding their own business. Yet, at Oxford, even these attempts have had to run the gauntlet of a preliminary appeal to the barbarians, since the Ancient House of Congregation in which they originate still consists, not as we should expect of University teachers, but of any M.A., whether professor, retired civilian, or practising tradesman, who pernoctates within a given radius. It is obvious that if Convocation and the Senate are to survive at all, they must survive as the representatives of enlightened public opinion, not of an obscurantist clique, and must therefore embrace all who have taken a superior degree, whether they can afford an annual donation or not. Congregation, too (a body still lacking at Cambridge), must be made exclusively to consist of members of the University Boards of Faculty, and should be given final control over the details of studies, lectures, and examinations. Thirdly, the working Committees, known at Oxford as the Hebdomadal Council, and at Cambridge as the Council of the Senate, should cease to reserve seats for professors and heads of houses, and be made up of representatives of all the different Faculties and University boards and institutions, with, perhaps, ambassadors from the Crown and

sister Universities. Finally, the double burden of controlling a College and representing a University has become too heavy for the shoulders of a single man. A Vice-Chancellor must no longer be the head of a College, but an official devoting his whole time and energy to the manifold functions that University leadership involves. A live Chancellor like Lord Curzon, if he is to remain beneficently active, must be backed by a deputy able entirely to relieve him of routine business and appointed for a period sufficiently long to secure the effective establishment of a progressive tradition.

We have hitherto confined ourselves to considering the reforms of Oxford and Cambridge, since in these old-world Universities, with the magic of their atmosphere and their august inheritance, it were most fitting that English learning should continue to find its worthiest and most national expression. They are so beautiful and potent in spite of every shortcoming, they have been consecrated by so many centuries of generous friendship and urbane accomplishment; if they are indeed *hauts lycées* and nothing more, they excuse the lowliness of their ambition with a modesty so cheerful and so manly, that if we could forget their mediæval splendour and efficiency and be deaf to the spirit of the age that calls relentlessly for science and for thinkers, we might well be tempted to let them drift on for ever in the pleasant backwaters wherein they lie to-day. But it is because these institutions are so great that the country needs through them first and foremost to realise her ideals and remedy her deficiencies. The recovery by Oxford and Cambridge of their pre-Renaissance spirit of dedication to learning and of their original democratic insistence upon equality of opportunity would, more than anything, spell the intellectual salvation of England.

The modern local Universities have done wonders, but they are still poor in money and tradition. They have as yet hardly the equipment, though they are by no means without the ambition, to research, and they all, in England and Wales alike, are still giving to the majority of their students rather secondary than superior instruction, thanks to the inadequate preparation furnished by the smaller Endowed and Municipal schools which feed them. Here, if it were needed, is a conclusive proof that we must reform from the bottom up, and, by securing that every school shall give a first-rate liberal training, set free old and new Universities alike to do their proper work. When once this basis of liberal instruction has been made general, the local Universities, which justly pride themselves on being very much in

touch with life, will do well to remember some words of Matthew Arnold. He wrote in 1865: "It is the function of the Special School to give a professional direction to what a boy has learnt at the Secondary School, at the same time that it makes his knowledge as far as possible systematic—develops it into science. It is the function of the University to develop into science the knowledge a boy brings with him from the Secondary School, at the same time that it directs him towards the profession in which his knowledge may most naturally be exercised. Thus, in the University, the idea of science is primary, that of the profession secondary; in the Special School, the idea of the profession is primary, that of science secondary."[1] Now, as thirty years ago, our Special Schools still for the most part remain to be instituted; but we have had a real Renaissance, inspired by genuine love of knowledge and genuine patriotism, in the interval, and local Universities have already sprung up in thirteen different centres. We need, if they are to become great, as the German Universities are great, to provide for these modern Universities not only proper students, but adequate funds. In 1906-7 the Treasury grant to all of them only amounted to £100,000, whereas Germany and America each spend out of State moneys nearly £1,000,000 upon their Universities. Our parsimony means that lecturers are still starving on stipends of £120 and £150 a year; that Wales, to whom the State makes a grant of £12,000, can only pay her full professors £350 a year; that, moreover, all the newer Universities are so shamefully understaffed as to make study, research, and personal intercourse with pupils impossibilities for teachers who are dragged along an endless and half-sterile routine of lectures and examinations and corrections. The towns and individual benefactors have done their share; it is now incumbent on the State to decuple her assistance, realising that Universities are a national, not merely a provincial, interest, and a highly profitable national investment.

Between the older and the newer types there will probably, as democracy spreads, be some movement towards approximation. The new Universities will learn from the old the value of corporate life, and, realising how much students have to teach each other, will help on their intercourse by building more and more hostels, real colleges, in which, as in American Universities and by an extension of our own Public-School tradition, discipline is in the hands of the pupils, not regulated by mediæval proctors or imposed from outside by dons. The old Universities in turn will learn from the new the value of

[1] *Higher Schools and Universities in Germany* (Macmillan), p. 134.

contact with life, and of the stimulus felt where ambitious poverty is rather the rule than the exception. Each type, however, and each University will deserve best of its country by perfecting its own peculiar contribution to national learning. It is really wicked to regret that Oxford did not embrace the offer of the Great Western Railway to establish its works there. Oxford will teach Aristotle, and perhaps in time Agriculture, better through being kept distinct from, rather than amalgamated with, Swindon. Its geographical position and its existing equipment will most properly count in determining the function of each University. A large town will ever be the best school of Medicine, because of its wealth of sickness, while the banks of the Cam and Isis will remain an unrivalled background for the cult of the older Muses. In time we may find students migrating from one University to another, as in the Middle Ages and in Germany to-day; and we may even find Germans, other than Rhodes Scholars, coming in pursuit of learning to an English institution of which learning is the profession. When they do come, we shall have full assurance that we have indeed reformed, and no little inward comfort.

Meanwhile it remains for us to make the Universities centres of scientific instruction for rich and poor students alike, and centres of enlightenment and culture for the whole country. Much has been done by Extension lectures, and such innovations as Ruskin College (before it attempted suicide) are full of promise. To-day nothing is more touching and more flattering than the desire of the working-man to have some share in the national heritage of Oxford. Tutorial classes, inculcating the love of truth and beauty amid the ugliness of modern labour and the dimness of modern vision, are doing the very highest kind of University work. The life of the English workman can, and must, be made richer; and mechanical toil be compensated, here as in Germany, by training the soul to taste something of the mystery and sublimity of man and Nature. The harvest is great, and our hard-worked dons still have half the year to reap it in, if they can tear themselves from the original work which we like to believe is the delight of their vacations.

Finally and very briefly, can the Universities with safety remain independent of State control? It will seemingly need a Third Commission to reform Oxford and Cambridge, and we have seen that the newer Universities are certain to become more and more a national charge. Some measure of Central control, over finance at least, will therefore follow, and the State should establish a joint University Committee to

advise the Minister of Education on tests for the various Service appointments and on points in which Superior instruction needs correlating with Secondary teaching. But, in so far as may be, Universities should play in Education rather the part of a counterpoise to bureaucracy than that of the fourth department of a common national Board. The German tradition of *Lernfreiheit* and *Lehrfreiheit* is the sound one, not the French, with its ministerial programmes for Faculty instruction. Our Universities must be made and helped to do their proper work, but they can only realise themselves fully as free corporations, inspiring and directing the thought of the nation, making statesmen, not made by them. But if they would retain for themselves and the country the advantages of University freedom, Oxford and Cambridge at least must learn again to exercise their freedom with intelligence, by having done with compromise and remembering that their sole task is the advancement of the kingdom of knowledge.

A MEMBER OF CONVOCATION.

Editorial Note.—Lord Curzon's book on University Reform has appeared while this volume is in the press. That such a book, invested with the authority of a name and office so distinguished, can appear at all, is a welcome sign of the times. The more the opinion of reformers from within is helped, by activity equally competent and disinterested, to crystallise into certain definite proposals, before the Third Commission, which Lord Curzon himself recognises as inevitable, begins its task of reforming from without, the easier and more lastingly beneficent will the work of this Commission prove to be. One suggestion of the Chancellor's we seize this occasion to deprecate—the founding at Oxford of a Working-men's College. No step, we are convinced, would be more ill-advised. Surely, the ideal is, rather, the conversion of every existing College into an institution at once closed to the wealthy "pass man" and open to the able poor of all classes. Exclusively "Honours" Colleges at Oxford seem to thrive, and a University is, or should be, based on the principle of replacing social caste, and even patronage, by equality of opportunity for all discoverable talent.

C. N.
A. H. H.

CHAPTER V

THE SECONDARY EDUCATION OF THE WORKING CLASSES

"The ancient wisdom of the best times did always make a just complaint that states were too busy with their laws and too negligent in point of education."—BACON.

"The bringing upp of childeryn in their adolescency, and to occupy them in good lerning and out of idilness, is the chief cause whereby, when they shall come to vyrilitie, they may the better know, love, honor, and drede God and His laws, and is the key and grounde to have good people."—FOUNDATION STATUTES OF MANCHESTER GRAMMAR SCHOOL.

THE age of thirteen is the time when a boy of the well-to-do classes is transferred from the Preparatory to the Public School. At no other time in his life is more care and thought expended on his education; at no other time is monetary sacrifice more willingly made by his parents; at no other time is the boy more carefully shielded from evil influences, and more sedulously fostered in all right habits and pursuits. Such is the lot of the favoured few whose education is in the hands of their parents. What of the many whose education is in the hands of the State? At the time when his well-dressed brother is turning his thoughts to Rugby or Eton, the working lad is beginning to face the realities of life. He is perhaps already doing a round with milk or newspapers before he goes to school in the morning; or, if he is in one of the textile towns, he is being broken in to his future vocation as a "little piecer" at the loom. In any case, for one-third of our children after thirteen, and four-fifths of them after fourteen,[1] there is no more school, except the rough and tumble school of life. The scholar has been drafted into the ranks of the great industrial army; if he is smart at his work, he is an

[1] The actual figures are: No. of children on the Register, 1906-7—

Between 12 and 13	590,768
„ 13 „ 14	403,001

Making all allowance for mortality and transference to other schools, this means a shrinkage of 31·9 per cent. in the numbers in attendance after 13.

office boy, and being initiated into the mysteries of correspondence files, the telephone, and petty cash; if his parents or his teacher are far-sighted, he is apprenticed to some skilled trade; but in the great majority of cases he is bundled into whatever job happens to come to hand: he runs errands for the local grocer, gets his stand on the tram-route for paper-selling, weighs out soap-powder into cardboard boxes, puts labels on soda-water bottles, packs tea, chops wood, drives a pony down the pit, or surveys the world from the tail-end of a delivery van in all the glory of a nipper. It may be that the influence of teacher and parent, combined with the inward stirrings of ambition, induce him to join an evening class, or to consent so far as to promise, like a Cabinet Minister at question time, that the matter shall have all fitting consideration when the time comes. But for the moment the change of life is sufficiently revolutionary and exacting to put all thought of school out of his head.

Hitherto his working hours have been 9 to 4.30, with a generous interval at mid-day; now he has to turn out at the sound of the 5.30 buzzer, and he has no time to call his own for the next twelve hours. No one, who will take the trouble to recall what he himself was like at the age of thirteen, can blame the working lad of the same age if, when his free time comes in the evening, his first thought is recreation. And no one can blame him if his recreation takes the shape of the music-hall, the "public," or the "penny gaff," unless society has given him a chance of following a more excellent way by providing some better alternative, and has made that alternative at least as attractive and as recreative as the agencies against which it has to compete.

Such is the present educational condition of the great bulk of our English working lads in our great urbanised communities, and it cannot be said to be any better in the country villages. Modern industry offers plenty of openings for juvenile labour, it appeals at once to the lads' sense of manliness and independence by offering attractive pay, and there is all the zest of novelty and actuality about the new workaday life. Small wonder if the thought of school, with its restraint and its promises of a late harvest in a far distant and contingent future, seems irksome by comparison, and the boy who goes forward to the secondary school is pitied instead of envied.

Yet it is these adolescent years of thirteen to seventeen which are the most crucial years of life. All the powers of body, mind, and character are then in their most plastic condition. These are the years of preparation for the crises of

sex and for domestic independence. At no other time of life does external environment and influence, whether good or evil, count for so much as then. At no other time is right training and supervision more important. What the young fellow becomes then, physically, mentally, morally, such for the most part he will remain till the end of the chapter. Says Dr. Stanley Hall, in his great work on Adolescence: "Powers and faculties, essentially non-existent before, are now born: and of the older instincts and impulses, some are reinforced and greatly developed, while others become subordinate, so that new relations are established, and the *ego* finds a new centre." It is at this point, which it is no exaggeration to describe as a time of new birth, that our educational system comes to an abrupt stop. We have built a bridge out into the middle of the stream, and there, where the water is deepest and the current runs strongest, we launch our young swimmers into the flood.

Nor may we lay the flattering unction to our soul that, after all, it always was so, and that, spite of all that may be said, things have been growing better instead of worse. I would not for one moment belittle all that has been done, nor shut my eyes to the good that has been reaped. But neither can one shut one's eyes to the new dangers which have arisen from the growth of modern conditions.

In the first place, we have the disproportionate growth of our great urban communities. The urbanised life, which is now the lot of more than three out of every four in the country, brings with it special perils, of which we are only just beginning to realise the magnitude and the subtlety. Time was when we thought that, if we overcame drink and impurity, the problem would be solved. But now at the back of these outward and visible evils we discern an inward and invisible spirit, which makes for neurotism, decadence, moral drift, instability, and national decay. "Never has youth been exposed to such dangers of both perversion and arrest as in our own land to-day," says Dr. Stanley Hall. "Increasing urban life, with its temptations, prematurity, sedentary occupations and passive stimuli, just when an active, energetic life is most needed; early emancipation from home influence and authority, and a lessening sense for both duty and discipline; the haste to know and do all befitting man's estate before its time; the mad rush for sudden wealth, and the reckless fashion set by its gilded youth—all these lack some of the regulatives they still have in older lands with more conservative traditions." Ours may be one of the older lands, but our conservative traditions have not been of much avail to

stem the tide of what Mr. Gladstone called "imitated luxury" and the relaxation of family discipline, while our proportion of urbanised population is more than double that of the United States, to which Dr. Stanley Hall's words refer.

Again, the conditions of modern industry have killed out the old apprentice system and made it quite impossible to teach a lad his trade in the old-fashioned way. Things are organised on a larger scale; labour is sub-divided and highly specialised; the machine is more and more, the individual is less and less; all the processes are geared up to a higher rate of speed and the hustler has no time to teach. Nor is this all. The more commerce and industry develop, the less stable they seem to be. Periods of inflation and depression succeed each other more rapidly than ever, and the application of science to manufacture is continually introducing some new improved process which diverts trade into new channels, and throws thousands of working folk out of employment.

It is not, therefore, a matter of surprise if modern sociological investigators seem to be forced back in spite of themselves upon these same years of adolescence. Whatever be the disease which is investigated, those who diagnose it put their finger on these all-important years of adolescence as the chief breeding-ground of the evil, and point to the right treatment of our youth in these years as the most hopeful prescription for a permanent cure.

The Interdepartmental Committee on Physical Deterioration "are impressed with the conviction that the period of adolescence is responsible for much waste of human material, and for the entrance upon maturity of permanently damaged and ineffective persons of both sexes. The plasticity of the physical organism, the power it possesses of yielding rapidly towards degenerative or recuperative tendencies, appears to terminate at eighteen, and the records of the years preceding that age are in the great majority of cases decisive for improvement or the reverse."

The student of criminology, on probing into the causes of criminal habit, puts his finger on the same sore point. The Governor of Wormwood Scrubbs Prison speaks of the metropolis as the "worst labour market in England for the lad between sixteen and twenty-one." The Report of the Commissioners of Prisons for 1908 calls attention to what they call "a great defect in our social system, in the absence of any plan whereby lads leaving the elementary schools, perhaps with good character and good ability, can be diverted into paths of permanent employment, skilled or unskilled, instead of being

left, as they are, to take their chance in the labour market, to earn what few shillings they can by casual jobs, and, in many cases, to drift, from lack of superintendence or interest in their work, into idle and loafing habits—the breeding-ground of criminal propensity."

The study of Pauperism and of the cognate problem of Unemployment leads to the same conclusion. It is in the adolescent stage that the mischief is done. The Poor Law Commission appointed a Special Commissioner to investigate the problem of boy labour, and so much importance do they attach to this aspect of the problem that it takes the first place in their list of preventive measures. They emphasise the evils resulting from the large employment of boys in "uneducative and blind-alley occupations," which offer comparatively high wages to boys leaving school, but lead nowhere, offer no prospect of occupation to the boys as men, and no opportunity of training for other occupations. Errand boys, for instance, are only too apt to degenerate: they forget what they knew, they lose the habit of attention which enables them to learn, the time spent on the streets tends to demoralisation, and from sheer neglect they drift into the ranks of casual and inefficient labourers. Many lads take to the messenger business as a stop-gap until they are of age for apprenticeship, or until they secure the opening they seek. Thus there is a gap between the cessation of regular school and the commencement of regular work. This gulf between school and trade does a great deal of harm to many lads who have either an excess of spirit or a dearth of backbone, and diverts them into less desirable employment. But worst of all stands the case with the street-trader and newspaper-seller. The Commissioners report: "There is urgent need of improved facilities for technical education after the present age for leaving school. With a view to the improvement of physique, a continuous system of physical drill should be instituted which might be commenced during school life and be continued afterwards; and, in order to discourage boys from entering uneducative occupations which offer no prospect of permanent employment, there should be established a special organisation for giving boys, parents, teachers, and school managers information and guidance as to suitable occupations for children leaving school.... They regard with favour the suggestion that boys should be kept at school until the age of fifteen instead of fourteen;[1] that exemption below this age should be granted only for boys

[1] The figures on p. 544 show the delusion as to the present state of things under which the Commissioners labour.

leaving to learn a skilled trade; and that there should be school supervision till sixteen."

So far, our purview has been limited to our own country. The case becomes still stronger when we look abroad. No one who has studied the accounts of Continuation Schools in Germany and Switzerland, which have been placed before us in Prof. Sadler's monumental work and in the various reports issued by the Board of Education, can fail for one moment to see, in this careful supervision and training of the adolescents, one main cause of the wonderful industrial advance of these countries, which in point of natural advantages are so inferior to our own and which started so far behind us in the race. The development of industry and commerce, the training of skill and the application of science to the processes of production, are, perhaps, among the least of the achievements of continued education in these countries. Not all workmen can be skilled operatives, the merely manual, menial work has not been eliminated by the introduction of machinery; some would indeed argue that its volume is increased. What of the hewers of wood and drawers of water? Let the working man himself give the reply: he can judge the relative conditions better than any observer drawn from another class. Mr. Steadman, the Secretary of the Parliamentary Committee of the Trades Union Congress, recently visited Germany in company with three other Labour Members, Messrs. Shackleton, Thorne, and Bowerman. Here is their report:

"Altogether we found that the German workman gets more out of life than ours does. There is not nearly so much drinking. Betting and gambling is almost unknown, and the amusements of the people are infinitely better. At Dresden we went into the Opera House—a building compared with which Covent Garden is a dustbin—and there we heard music of the best composers. There are good seats for a shilling, and these were filled with workmen and their families. . . . The German workmen get less money than ours, and their conditions are generally harder, but *they get infinitely more out of life than we do.* They are much better educated, their tastes are more refined."

The result of higher education may not necessarily be higher wages, but it does mean a higher standard of living; the inward is bound to react on the outward; things that are of the earth earthy and of the turf turfy, "the soilure of

ignoble touch," are superseded by "nobler loves and nobler cares."

> "When the mind is quickened, out of doubt
> The organs, tho' defunct and dead before,
> Break up their drowsy grave and newly move
> With casted slough and fresh legerity."

Turn where we will, within, around, at home or abroad, all considerations are forcing us to the conclusion that our next step forward in social advance must be the organisation of the Continuation School on a national basis. Compulsion is a word which is repellent to our English ears. But still more repellent is the word "unemployment" and the idea of decadence. Moreover, we have already accepted the principle. Every argument that can be alleged against a compulsory system of Continuation Schools has been already urged against the compulsory system of Elementary Schools in 1870 and 1871. It has been weighed in the balance and found wanting. If compulsion has its drawbacks, neglect has its far graver perils. Nothing is so costly and fatal as neglect. In a country which owes so much of its wealth to the careful utilisation of waste products, we can no longer afford to waste, as we are doing, the potentialities of skill and intelligence in the human product, the half-million boys and girls of thirteen and fourteen years of age who leave our Elementary Schools every year.

There is no denying that our voluntary system has achieved excellent results. Under able and enthusiastic administrators, in such places as Widnes, Halifax, and Manchester, it has shown the lines on which any successful national system must be worked, if it is not only to supply the needs, but also to enlist the sympathies and interest, of those for whom it caters. The spirit of the work in the best English Continuation Schools it would be hard to match anywhere, and it would be nothing short of disastrous if that spirit were to be lost in the new work of educational reconstruction which lies before us. England has a contribution of its own to make to the solution of this question, which no other country except Denmark has hitherto evolved. If we look at our existing agencies of continued education, such as the Working Men's College, the Early Morning Adult School, the Workers' Educational Association, we can see running through them all the spirit of F. D. Maurice and Bishop Grundtvig—the idea of comradeship as well as culture, the idea of working together as fellow-members of a corporate life, and the end of that life not merely technical skill but

a fuller, freer development of the highest faculties of a complete manhood and womanhood.

But these are merely islands of excellence, and the sad feature is that those who most need their influence are just those who remain outside it. The voluntary system has been the pioneer, it has shown the way; the time has come now for action on a national scale.

This is not the place to forecast in detail the curriculum, the methods, the times and seasons, of the new system that must come into being. Some adjustment of the hours of juvenile labour will be necessary. This is a delicate matter, and will need the willing co-operation of both employers and employees with the Education Authority. Many classes will have to be held in the daytime, and the fitting hour can only be arrived at by an agreement, as nearly as possible a unanimous agreement, of all the employers in the district. This means that the instruction will have to be given very largely on trade lines; it will necessarily have a bearing on the duties of practical life. What Bacon said of learning in general, may be said with special emphasis of the Continuation School curriculum: "Practical men may not go away with an opinion that learning is like a lark that can mount and sing and please herself and nothing else." The education of the Continuation School is not like the education of the Public School, it does not live to itself and it may not please itself and nothing else: it is strictly subordinate to the needs of a workaday world, it must have a direct bearing on the every-day occupation of those for whom it caters. Its science must be the science that arises out of occupation and is applied to occupation, and its thinking must be based on doing, its craft of brain on the craft of hand. Provision must be made for the dull and coarse who will never rise above the rank of labourer. The present system offers them nothing.

We have spoken much of "the ladder of education." The phrase has grown a trifle musty, but while we have provided for the few the ladder from the elementary school to the University, we have not yet provided for the many the ladder of continuity between the elementary school and those industrial and commercial occupations on which the very existence of our country depends. This must be the basis of the curriculum, for the boy of fifteen needs an object in his work, and it must be an object which has actuality. There are many loose strands in his nature; what is needed is a unifying purpose, and that unifying purpose will be, in nearly every case, the desire to earn his footing like a man in this

new workaday world of which he is just beginning to be conscious, and to qualify himself for doing efficiently some piece of work for which the world will be willing to pay him. True, it will not always be possible to know at fifteen in what particular line of life he will find his occupation. But it is better to train him for a trade which he will not follow, than not to train him for any. The great sin is nothingness. It is better to have learned and lost than never to have learned at all. The boys of our industrial schools, who are not exactly the pick of the population, are constantly learning trades in which they find no opening, but they learn to be handy and adaptable, and the latest statistics show that, in the present time of abnormal depression, the rate of unemployment among Industrial School boys does not rise above 4 per cent.

But the boy of fifteen is not only a pragmatist, he is a seer of visions. The tough antagonism of matter which he handles day by day, rather stimulates than deadens the stirring of romance, just as the growth of great cities has quickened the love of nature. The age at which nowadays the ordinary boy leaves school is just the age when he is beginning to understand the meaning of all he has been learning; hitherto he has entered in by the strait gate, and now he is beginning to see some of the wide horizons of the larger land into which he has gained entrance. He begins to read newspapers and to argue keenly on politics, and he is eager for light on questions which concern the well-being of his class and his country. The recent report of the Workers' Educational Association, entitled *Oxford and Working-Class Education*, shows how the young artisans are beginning to reach out for that knowledge and culture which will enable them to work out their own salvation. Here is the opportunity of the Continuation School. It must follow the gleam. To show the adolescent the right use of those instruments of knowledge which the Elementary School has placed in his hands, to help the young intelligence to hold communion with the loftiest spirits whose inspiration keeps the old world young, to tune the voice and ear to the concord of sweet sounds, to trace the progress of man's work on earth as he moves upward, working out the beast and struggling into the fuller realisation of the wholeness of his nature, to set before him, at the time of hero-worship, the men who have kindled the great beacon-lights of history and taught us how to make our lives sublime,—this also is the task of the Continuation School. It is for lack of this vision that the people perish. It is not merely by the vegetative process of growth, by figures on

a dial and the lapse of twenty-one years of time, that a man should qualify for citizenship. It should be far more a matter of mental and moral growth.

It is also for lack of this higher coping that the Elementary School fails. There is much criticism of the Elementary School and no lack of counsellors. But men fail to see how unreasonable it is to expect a mature product at an immature age. The Elementary School can never bring fruit to perfection. All that we have a right to expect from it, is the appetite and the aptitude for the right things. If that appetite is turned to coarse foods, and that aptitude to base uses, it is because of the present abrupt stoppage before the moment of realisation. We are, so to speak, paying the premium year by year upon our policy, but, because the last three years are wanting, we never draw the sum assured. Years ago it was said by Sir Richard Jebb, "Our elementary education, unless crowned by something higher, is not only barren but may even be dangerous. It is not well to teach a democracy to read, unless we also teach it to think."

I have spoken of the educational ladder. It is the cant phrase, but not one that I love, and I wish some one would invent a better. It suggests the picture of a few favoured spirits, who climb up into a far-away and solitary Paradise, and for the most part scorn the base degrees by which they did ascend. It is, at bottom, a selfish and individualist ideal, and, after all, Mazzini is right: "Association is the law of progress." Man develops best by corporate action, and his needs, higher as well as lower, are best supplied by social co-operation. The age of adolescence is the time when the social sense begins to develop, and it needs the right medium in which to develop. "A branch which is cut from the adjacent trunk," says Marcus Aurelius, "must of necessity be cut off from the whole tree also. So, too, a man, when he is separated from another man, has fallen off from the whole social community." Here, again, is the task and the opportunity of the Continuation School. Indeed, its highest function will be to foster that sense of social solidity which constitutes a nation's strength. In the battle of life, which is based on the principle of each for himself and the devil take the hindmost, we fight each for our own hand, and grow into hardened individuals. To this tendency the best corrective is to find ourselves members of a society in which the efficiency and good name of the whole depend on the efficiency and honourable conduct of each constituent member. The ideal Continuation School will either be itself such a society or be in close association with it. The biggest evening schools

of Manchester are found in connection with the large Working Lads' Clubs of that city, and no development of recent years is so full of promise as this. Here, on the one hand, is that alliance between voluntary effort and official administration which the Poor Law Commission point to as the great panacea for the gravest of all our social evils. Here we have real contact between pupil and teacher, and that tonic atmosphere which the spirit of personal service and sacrifice always brings with it. Here, above all, we have the education which comprehends the whole man, which touches the feelings and shapes the motives of plastic life, which provides recreation of mind and body as well as formal instruction, which works in an atmosphere of comradeship, and trains character by that best of all training, the responsibilities of leadership, which gives scope for endless activities in innumerable directions,—here we have, in short, an educational society in which each of the several organs draws strength and vigour from the healthy functioning of the rest, and all are contributing to the well-being of an organic whole.

J. L. PATON.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION

THE preceding chapters on the Reform of English Education in its different branches, in which our contributors point out abuses and suggest remedies by the light of special experience, though they naturally and usefully present some divergence in detail from our own proposals, emphasise, we think, with sufficient force and unanimity, the need for the comprehensive reorganisation of education, by means of systematic and national effort, which it has been the object of this book to advocate. It now remains for us briefly to summarise our main contentions, referring the reader back to previous sections for a statement of the grounds on which we base them.

(1) **The Assistant-master** must be better trained and qualified, and infinitely better paid. This first and foremost. Unless every other reform is to prove futile, we must have in England, as abroad, a body of teachers with professional standing, of proved competence, and with an assured career before them. Their appointment and promotion must be under the control, not preferably the immediate control, of the State, and the State must guarantee them an adequate income and a pension, by measures more efficacious than benevolent advice. So, and so only, can we hope to combine didactic excellence with that generous view of duty and responsibility which honourably distinguishes our English masters and redeems our English schools. The combination to-day is rare and accidental: when it is general, it will give us the finest teaching army in the world.

(2) **The Headmaster** must retain the personal leadership with which he is invested by national tradition. He must be allowed freedom of action in the details of curriculum and administration, and scope for individuality in method and ideal. The Heads of Elementary and Municipal Schools need to be emancipated, not the Heads of Endowed and other

Public Schools to be fettered. The Headmaster must be ruler, but as a colleague, not a despot. If he succeeds, he must be supported and trusted by his governors: if he fails, he must be ruthlessly dismissed.

(3) **The Local Authorities** should secure the adequate supply of schools and their proper material and instructional equipment. Their province is, however, the *externa*, the provision of instruments for education; *interna*, teaching and organisation, being left to the Headmaster and the State. The State alone should inspect all types of school, a duplicated inspectorate being wasteful and confusing, and local inspectors necessarily lacking the width of outlook, authority, and standing which are indispensable. The Local Authority will support all schools, Endowed or Municipal, Church or Secular, which provide efficient education for the ratepayers' children. It will control by representation, or, in the case of its own schools, by small bodies of managers, and will consult, and co-opt to its Education Committee, experienced teachers. It will be liberal in helping schools to educate, as well as teach, by providing playing-fields and making a library grant. Its spirit will be of co-operation, not of rivalry: its only object will be to furnish the district with education both first-rate and sufficient.

(4) **The Central Authority** should aim at ensuring the general adoption of whatever educational weapon has proved its value, at standardising a high level of achievement, at improving, above all things, the instruction. It should reduce, by less negative means than offering or withholding grants, our present chaos into the order of a nationally organised system, in which every type of school is doing its proper work as a constituent part of one connected whole. The Private School must be regularly inspected and, if incompetent, suppressed: the Public School must at last give public guarantees. In all schools the State must foster, not discourage, freedom in non-essentials, and by instituting Provincial Boards must bring its regulations into harmony with the varying needs of different districts. By such decentralised control it will also keep in living touch with schools, and replace the red-tape and pedantic uniformity of the bureau by the direct observation and practical judgment of the Commissioner on the spot. And since the success of State supervision depends much more upon the tact and humanity of a reformed inspectorate, composed of experienced and brilliant ex-teachers, than upon the codes and theories of any Whitehall secretary, the Board will not in the future reduce, as this year, its inspectors by twenty-two while increasing its

other administrative machinery. It will encourage masters by helping them to get a Register, instead of baulking their attempts: it will not leave the public apathetic by giving it belated and inadequate reports or confused and confusing statistics, but will try to rouse public interest and inform public opinion by issuing a full survey of what is being done in England, and comparing it with what we have done in the past and what foreign countries are achieving to-day. This, and the general direction of high educational policy, is the real work of Whitehall. For the rest, the State will show equal energy in checking the charlatan and in encouraging the enthusiast and the reformer; by instituting sanctions it will secure that Secondary School boys sit out the full school course and receive, all of them, an education up to sample. Its control will be human not formal, elastic not stereotyped.

(5) **The Curriculum** of the Higher School will be liberal, and will embrace in due proportion the study of both man and Nature: its backbone, as in the past, will be linguistic training. So long as it follows sound educational principles, it will be adapted in detail to the individual school and the individual boy. It will always be based on, and continue throughout, a study of the mother-tongue; will begin foreign languages at regular intervals; and will postpone the choice of a career by giving every boy a common course of study up to the age of fourteen.

(6) **The Discipline** of the school will be maintained by friendly co-operation between boy and master rather than by repression. Prompt obedience must be insisted on, but punishment will be rare, if only it is certain and, always mercifully, severe. Lines always, and, as far as possible, detention, should be dispensed with. It should be made easier for a boy to do right than to do wrong.

(7) **The Out-of-School Activities** of boys are as much a part of education as instruction in the class-room. They must be varied and carefully organised, so as to bring healthy interests and pleasurable exercise within the reach of every type of boy. Masters must control and stimulate, but the first object of school societies and games is to develop initiative and self-help among the boys. Their second is to train them, physically and mentally, for life.

(8) **The Health** of boys is the condition of happiness and good work. It must therefore be safeguarded by providing them with suitable food and dress, and giving them a liberal allowance of sleep. It must be considered by the school when arranging hours and the total amount of weekly work. Experience goes to show that intensive effort, during short

periods with frequent breaks, produces the best intellectual result. Above all, the young must not be overstrained.

(9) **The Home** gives boys their temperament, which life at school can only modify in part. Hence the home is all-important in making or marring character. It should work with the school, by learning its ideals and supporting its attempt to foster public spirit. Reciprocally, the school should take every step to keep in touch with parents by unofficial visits and by "At Homes" and Conferences.

(10) **The Elementary School** should be given more variety and elasticity of course, and be granted more and more of the autonomy in detail which characterises the older Secondary Schools. It should sort its children into groups according to ability, permitting those who have completed the primary course by the age of ten to begin higher studies, such as French and algebra, and sending on the boys who can profit by it to the Higher Elementary or the Secondary School by the age of twelve. No child should be allowed to leave before his fourteenth birthday, and care should be taken, by supplementary courses in the last two years, to give a practical turn to school-life. The classes must be reduced in size and placed in the charge of certificated teachers only, while more initiative and freedom must be left to the teacher and much more self-activity in unaided work to the scholar. By the provision of playing-fields, and organised societies and games, the corporate life of the Elementary School must be properly developed.

(11) **The Preparatory School** must become a matter of public, not merely or chiefly of private, enterprise, giving its boys a sound education in English subjects, and forwarding them to day schools at eleven or twelve and to boarding schools at thirteen or fourteen. It will duplicate in its top forms the teaching of the lower secondary course for the benefit of clever or older boys, but it will avoid at all costs the linguistic and mathematical "scholarship cram" of to-day. It will act as the Junior Department of all Higher Schools, whether it be closely connected with any single school or not.

(12) **The Municipal Secondary School** should, except where it has its own Senior Department, co-operate with the local Grammar School, sending on its boys who are destined for the University by the age of fourteen. Its course of instruction will be throughout liberal, though in its higher stages it will afford a full choice of modern options. It should aim at developing more of the public spirit of the older schools both among masters and boys, since its best success depends upon the hearty co-operation of Head and

staff and pupils in building up, by personal devotion, that tradition of intense corporate life which has been denied it by its history.

(13) **The Grammar School** is, in our opinion, likely to become the increasingly predominating type of English higher education, by reason of its combination of liberal study and contact with life. It therefore merits the fullest measure of State and local support, and should in turn take the lead in civic patriotism.

(14) **The Public School** must, willy-nilly, be brought into line and given the leading place it merits in a national system. As a residential school and as a school endowed for learning it is in equal need of inspection, and public control alone can improve the standard of its average intellectual work and break down its caste spirit, without impairing its individuality or that keen spirit of loyalty and that athletic energy which have made its contribution to international education of unique and lasting value.

(15) **The Continuation School**, had Mr. Chiozza Money's late Bill passed, would have been made compulsory, during six hours per week, for all children under seventeen who are not otherwise being systematically educated. Such compulsion is exercised by more than three-quarters of the German States, and its necessity in England is proved by the fact that, in 1901, only 387,000 out of 4,600,000 persons between the ages of fourteen and twenty-one were attending day and evening Continuation Schools. At present by obtuse economy we deprive the young of instruction at the very moment when they are most capable of profiting by it, and by neglecting to teach boys a trade are saddled with a permanent and growing burden of unemployable men.

(16) **The Universities** must be relieved of the task of giving school-cram to passmen, and set free to do their proper work—tertiary education and original research. Oxford and Cambridge must restore the University Faculties to their proper primacy, and must, by reducing the cost of living and redistributing College resources, give greater opportunity of residence to poorer men, while the local Universities must receive far more aid from central funds than to-day, if they are to be made effective. All alike must collaborate with the State in guiding the work of the Higher Schools within their area.

(17) **Scholarships** everywhere must give assistance to meritorious poverty and that alone. The term "poverty" is relative and the help should be relative also, adjusted without publicity to individual needs. Honorary Scholarships, with-

out emolument, may give recognition to merit, even when found among the wealthy.

(18) **Rural Education** must be made a reality. To-day, out of about 200 Secondary Schools in agricultural districts, only twenty-one give instruction that bears on farming, and only fifteen have experimental plots. Prussia devotes £100,000 a year to Agricultural instruction, the English Treasury £12,000. The division of control between the Board of Education and the Board of Agriculture must either cease altogether or be based on a clear understanding, such as that suggested by Mr. Rogers at the recent Conference, when he moved that the Board of Education should be responsible for the rural teaching in Elementary, Secondary, and Continuation Schools, and the Board of Agriculture for instruction of a specially agricultural character, questions of common interest being referred to an Interdepartmental Committee which should report to each Board. It is essential that in each Province there shall be an Agricultural College, to which rural education in the primary and higher schools may send boys properly prepared.[1]

(19) **The Cost of Education** renders increased State aid imperative unless local interest is to be killed by the excessive burden, or, to use the more pessimistic language of *The Morning Post*, "public apathy is to be turned into public scepticism." The proportion of total expenditure borne by the State has fallen in ten years from 68·3 per cent. to 49·7 per cent. in the country at large, and to 30·3 per cent. in London. In some districts, as Manchester, there is comparatively little money spent on capital charges owing to the supply of Voluntary schools: elsewhere the amount required is enormous. A penny rate produces 9*s.* 8*d.* per child in Hove, and 1*s.* in the Scilly Isles. Mr. Asquith himself admits that grants must be redistributed so as to take into account both ability to pay and local necessity, and the suggestion is equitable that they should be made in proportion to capital expenditure, and that a further extension should be made to the sliding-scale principle of Section 10 of the 1902 Act, which to a uniform grant of 4*s.* per child adds an amount equal to 1½*d.* for every 2*d.* whereby the product of a penny rate falls below 10*s.* per child in average attendance. As regards Secondary Education, the lumping together of the Treasury Grant to Secondary Schools and to the Training of Pupil-teachers in one total, and speaking

[1] For an account of the excellent rural teaching within the scope of a Supplementary Course, see the article in the *Morning Post* of April 9, 1909, on the experiment at the village school of Ednam in Roxburghshire.

as if the State was spending £800,000, not £450,000, on Secondary Education proper, makes for nothing but needless confusion, while cheap rhetoric about greatly increasing the number of free places is unworthy of a statesman. When the Board has made Secondary instruction a reality, parents will gladly pay for it to the extent of their ability. Finally, we would add that, although it may be convenient to debit such charges as the feeding and medical inspection of school children to the Education Committees, these duties, however obvious, have nothing to do with Education at all, and that thus to confuse expenditure on totally different objects is somewhat dangerous at a moment of popular outcry against the cost of schools.

(20) **The Value of Secondary Education,** already dimly recognised, will under expert State control become as patent to English, as to foreign, parents and employers. It is an indispensable preliminary to all technical and superior study. It is of proved necessity, both for effective service in municipal and national life, and for maintaining our commercial position amid the rivalry of peoples who already possess, or are rapidly establishing, a sound and vigorous system of Higher Schools. And not only does it incidentally develop this trained business aptitude we need so much, but by its intellectual, physical, and moral discipline it elevates the whole boy, so that he may, with a healthy body and a healthy mind, use his life nobly and enjoy it sanely. But perhaps its best service is that it affords an opportunity for bringing different classes together when they are young and generous, and thereby introducing a spirit of union and mutual sympathy into a nation so split to-day by faction that it is risking both its internal prosperity and its outward strength.

Such, then, are our twenty Articles of faith, and we respectfully offer them to the attention of a public only uninterested because ill-informed. But we have kept to the hard facts of the present long enough. Let us end by indulging our fantasy, and building, not a castle in Spain, but an English Higher School for boys, after the pattern set in our minds, perhaps also in the heavens.

The ideal school will be situated on the outskirts of an English town, in the fairest suburb, where the houses are merging into the open country. If there is a hill, it will stand upon it, in order that from the class-room window its boys may look over the city, with its mills and steeples, away to the farms and moorland beyond, with perhaps a glimpse of the sea. Its buildings will be both noble and useful, with an

individuality of their own, that they may be loved, like a person. There will be a great hall, where the boys can pray together and sing together—songs of the school, of the town, of the nation. Some one will have built a lofty tower, with a deep bell, to summon to work and play, so that the Old Boys, busy down in the town, may see the tower, and hear the notes of the bell, and remember. The whole school will have been built by private benefaction, and the town, and the nation, each in its portion. It will bear the town's name and reflect the town's greatness, and it will bring up men who shall so serve and rule their city that its name shall be unsullied and its greatness human. It will also be a school of Englishmen that shall make their country's name spell honour and her empire service. It will be a kind mother to kind sons.

In the school there will be about 500 boys, perhaps more, perhaps fewer, for their number will vary with the size of the town. There will be enough boys for forms of equal merit to be possible right through the school. There will not be so many that the Headmaster cannot know something of every one, and each boy something of every schoolfellow near his own age. The boys will come together from homes of all classes, so long as classes endure. The son of the Prime Minister will sit side by side with the son of the merchant and the son of the workman, who has been given a scholarship because the country needs so badly all the talent she can discover. The Indian judge's boy will be there as a boarder, perhaps because his father has been a boy there himself and learnt there to know and love all sorts and conditions of men. Other boarders will be the sons of the country squire and the country vicar, that they may be given the chance, while boys, of finding out what good fellows a clerk's son and the Baptist minister's lad can be. For at school, at least, all will be equal without shame or condescension, since all will be taught that riches, like genius, are really a trust, to be used for the greatness of England and the welfare of her people.

The boarders, who in larger cities may number a fifth, and in small towns a half of the school population, will live, as far as may be, in groups of fifty in the house of a master. They will sleep on hard beds and eat plain, good food, and will never get up for early school. They will take every meal with their master's family, will each have a study, and will find in their house a home. Their parents will pay the school just what it costs to keep them, more perhaps if they wish to, and are rich, certainly less if they are poor. The master, who will be chosen, not because he is old or because it is his turn, but because he and his wife love boys and

understand them, will receive a small sum for the extra letters he will have to write, and will live in the house rent-free. For he will not be a poor man, nor one willing to be richer than his colleagues.

The day-boys will live at home; only, those who come from a distance, and those whose fathers are poor, will dine together at the school; and a scholarship will include, where need is, not only teaching but books, and a substantial dinner at noon. The expense of the school will be met by fees (not too high, lest they keep out the shopkeeper's son, nor yet too low, lest "little cost" be confused with "little worth"), by endowments from those who love the school, and by grants from the town and from the nation. The town will pay more for the boys who leave at sixteen to join its business, and the nation more for those who stay on till nineteen to pass through the Universities into the nation's service. The richer fathers will insist on paying the entire cost of their boys' education.

Not only the boarders, but all the school, will be grouped into "houses" of fifty, each under a master, who shall be the tutor of every boy in his house and shall watch his progress in work and play, throughout his career at school. Each house will have its prefects and house-room, and its boys will aspire to keeping its honour-list full through good work done in form and on the field. And his name on the house-list will be the laurel-wreath of the English boy, his only reward to have helped to win a challenge-cup offered for work or game.

On the playing-fields, which their own arms have levelled and keep in proper order, the boys will learn to play straight and to lose manfully, fighting for their side, not each for his personal glory. In the class-room they will learn to work keenly, for the sake of home and school, and to work gladly, not unwillingly, since they will be taught the noblest thoughts of man and led to discover for themselves the method and the laws of Nature.

The task of the school will be great and its labour unending. For it will not rest content until, as far as its own efforts may avail, it sees all its boys, big and little, rich and poor, facing life with sturdy limb, clear brain and generous heart, and with the brightness of the morning on their brow.

THE END

APPENDIX A

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APPENDIX B

SCALES OF SALARIES IN SOME SECONDARY SCHOOLS

(According to a List issued by the Assistant-masters' Association)

A. LONDON SCHOOLS.

1. CITY OF LONDON SCHOOL.
   (*a*) Upper scale £300, rising to £450 by annual increments of £5 15*s.* 4*d.*
   (*b*) Lower scale £200, rising to £350 by same increments. 5 masters are paid on the higher scale and 15 on the lower.
2. MERCERS' SCHOOL.
   (*a*) Upper scale £160, rising to £300.
   (*b*) Lower scale £120, rising to £200.
3. ST. DUNSTAN'S, CATFORD.
   £150, rising to £200, and by special vote of the Governors, on the recommendation of the Headmaster, to £250.
4. LATYMER UPPER SCHOOL, HAMMERSMITH.
   Masters qualified for registration in Column B, £150, rising by annual increments of £10 to £300.
   Masters not so qualified, £125, rising by annual increments of £7 10*s.* to £300.

B. PROVINCIAL SCHOOLS.

1. MANCHESTER GRAMMAR SCHOOL.
   Ordinary scale £180, rising by £20 every two years to £300.
2. KING EDWARD VII. SCHOOL, SHEFFIELD.
   (*a*) 5 masters £220 to £250, rising by £10 annually to £300.
   (*b*) 5 masters £180 to £200, rising by £10 annually to £250.
   (*c*) 5 masters £150, rising by £10 annually to £200.
3. KING EDWARD'S HIGH SCHOOL, BIRMINGHAM.
   Usual salary to graduate, £150 or £160, rising to £300.
4. WHITGIFT GRAMMAR SCHOOL, CROYDON.
   For form-masters £200, rising to £250, is usual.

C. MUNICIPAL SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

1. BOURNEMOUTH.
   £120, rising to £150, with three special salaries of £170 rising to £250; £160 rising to £200; £140 rising to £170.
2. CROYDON.
   Form-masters (Grade 1) £150, rising by annual increments of £10 to £200.
   (Grade 2) £180, rising by annual increments of £10 to £250.
3. HARTLEPOOL.
   £150, rising to £200.
4. MANCHESTER.
   £140, rising to £180.
5. TYNEMOUTH.
   £150, rising by annual increments of £10 to £200.

D. COUNTY AUTHORITIES.

1. LONDON COUNTY COUNCIL.
   £150, rising by annual increments of £10 to £300, on satisfactory reports, with further annual increments of £10 to £350 in positions of special responsibility. (Recommended by Education Committee, and adopted by Council, July 24, 1906.)
2. MIDDLESEX.
   Graduates £120, rising—
   (*a*) By annual increments of £10 to £150 on satisfactory report of Headmaster.
   (*b*) By special vote of the Governors from time to time from £150 to £200 (not automatic).
   (*c*) By annual increments of £10 from £200 to £250.
3. KENT.
   £150, rising to £200.
4. SURREY.
   Non-graduates £100, rising by annual increments of £5 to £150.
   Graduates £130, rising by annual increments of £7 10*s.* to £250.

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